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FIVE PARADIGMS OF INDUCTION PROGRAMMES IN  
TEACHER EDUCATION

A comparative analysis of teacher induction programmes  
in Britain, Australia, New Zealand,  
United States and Canada

by

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## Five Paradigms of Induction Programming in Teacher Education

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This thesis is a comparative case study of induction programmes from five different countries: Britain, Australia, New Zealand, United States, and Canada. The intent was to investigate pedagogical and structural factors prevailing within these induction programmes that would encourage the confluence of pre-service, induction, and in-service education. An examination of how these induction programmes might enhance ongoing professional development opportunities for the beginning teacher was also undertaken.

Based on a review of literature concerning i) issues, parameters, and pedagogical perspectives of teacher education; ii) the socialization experiences and instructional challenges of beginning teachers; and iii) the processes, academic systems, and programme variations of induction the argument is made that many conflicting and complex pedagogical variables as well as historical, cultural, and educational factors may influence the establishment and institutionalization of induction.

A qualitative research methodology was employed using naturalistic inquiry techniques within a case and field study design. Data was derived from interviews, extant documents, field notes, and evaluation summaries over a three-year period.

Documented evidence revealed that no two induction programmes were identical, although various academic, governance, and organisational factors did indicate similarities within and among various countries. Confluence of the three stages of teacher education were generally absent from most programmes. Teacher assessment and supervision were identified as important strategies that could either enhance or obstruct professional development among beginning teachers. Self-evaluative activities incorporated as basic teacher assessment procedures were also profiled as critical factors in promoting a self-directed beginning teacher.

From these findings an identification of five distinguishable paradigms of induction were developed. The five models have been categorized as the laissez-faire model, the collegial model, the formalized mentor-protege model, the mandated competency-based model, and the self-directing professional model. The latter was absent from the induction programmes that were investigated.

Thirteen recommendations were proposed based upon the research findings. Twelve recommendations described how induction may enhance the confluence of teacher education as well as how induction may establish continuous professional development for beginning teachers. A thirteenth recommendation identified how programme efficacy may be achieved within induction.

"Oh! Who is he that hath his whole life long  
Preserved, enlarged, this freedom in himself?  
Where is the favoured being who hath held  
That course unchecked, unerring, and untired,  
In one perpetual progress smooth and bright?"

Wordsworth

From the Prelude Book Fourteen



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## Introduction to Section 1:

### DIMENSIONS OF THE PROBLEM

"In directing new energy to teacher education there ought to be a shift in where and how we use our augmented power. The central idea is that this new force should focus on the beginning years of teaching" - induction.

Bush (1980, p. 359)

This thesis will address two questions that are pertinent to teacher education. The major question concerns what type of academic components should prevail within induction to encourage the confluence of pre-service, induction and in-service teacher education. The secondary question is how induction programmes may promote self-directed learning practices so that beginning teachers may assume more responsibility for their own continuous professional development. In essence both these two questions address a common issue - the professional development of teachers. The procedure for analysing these two questions involves the examination of induction programming in five countries: Britain, Australia, New Zealand, U.S.A. and Canada. In summary this section presents the background to the problem, statement of the problem, limitations of study, and definition of terms.

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background to the Problem

Lord James of Rusholme and his Committee of Inquiry (D.E.S., 1972) reported to the British Government that reformation in teacher education would not be realized unless "the initial higher education, pre-service training and induction, and subsequent in-service training of teachers can be regarded as consecutive parts of a continuing process in which all parts are indispensable and although separate, interrelated" (p. 67). This declaration in a major government document on teacher education became the forerunner to subsequent reports, studies, research and programme implementation activities of many western industrialized countries over the past fourteen years. Teacher educators in such countries as Germany, Holland, Sweden, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, United States and Great Britain began to examine what procedures and programme options might be developed that would revitalize their teacher preparation programmes while being reflective of the historical, cultural, and educational traditions of their respective countries.

Furthermore, during this period of investigation into teacher education an overall movement towards school reform has also taken place. It has been argued that school improvement is an overriding endeavour that must be addressed if educational goals in any nation's political,



economic or social agenda are to be realized. In western industrial countries at present there is an overwhelming bias toward social and economic utility as the major indicator of excellence (Nash and Ducharme, 1983). Achieving this excellence is perceived by educators as attainable in various ways. Primary examples include i) effective use of the research on teaching and the research on schooling; ii) improved academic standards in schools and post secondary institutions; iii) greater emphasis on teaching the new basics, a combination of the three R's with computer literacy, second language education and consumer knowledge; and iv) substantial upgrading of teacher preparation and professional accountability.

School improvement, the holy grail of this educational quest, has been defined as the change of the teaching-learning process. In addition the accomplishment of this goal may be attained through effective practice within an enlightened school environment (Van Velzen, 1982). The agents of educational change who are relied upon to accomplish this mandate include politicians, district superintendents, university researchers, school administrators, but most importantly the classroom teacher. Hence the ultimate reform, within school reform, is inextricably related with the quality of teaching in the schools, which is in turn inevitably a manifestation of effectively and creatively designed and implemented teacher education programmes.

Successful educational reform places the quality and commitment of teachers at the centre of any improvement effort (Wideen, 1985), and yet criticism of the teaching



profession resonates from politicians, the public and even the profession itself on whether teachers are prepared sufficiently to improve the quality of schooling. Furthermore pedagogical overhauling within teacher education institutions has sometimes been described as an impossible task, "there are too many hurdles, too much disparity among institutions, too much institutional jealousy . . . too much ineptness in the leadership" (Smith, 1980, p. 79). Such issues as a paucity of admission criteria for students entering the teaching profession, an inadequate period of pre-service preparation, an insufficient salary and promotional opportunities within the educational system, and the misapplication or neglect in using the research on teaching in pedagogical programming are all claims that exemplify the complexity of teacher education reform.

To address this issue the National Commission on Excellence in Education in the United States prepared an important and controversial report entitled A Nation At Risk (NCEE, 1983). Included in this Report was the claim "that teacher preparation programs need substantial improvement <and> that the professional working life of teachers is on the whole unacceptable (p. 22)." Meanwhile in Britain a similar report, a Government White Paper, Teaching Quality (CMND 8836, 1983) has also addressed the issue by proposing the establishment of a council to accredit initial teacher education programmes and to develop a specific set of standard criteria so as to improve the overall quality of the profession. In fact, as of 1985 a council had been set up and the criteria were being established.

Finally, a national symposium held in Austin, Texas in 1984 entitled "Beyond the Looking Glass" examined reforms and developments in the the policies, practices and research in pre-service, induction, and in-service teacher education. Underpinning all conversations was the premise that when policy development is discussed, changing teacher education means changing schools and both require political as well as educational reforms (Corrigan, 1985). Furthermore, the status of teaching as a profession and the improvement of conditions to enhance professional practice, whether it be improved training programmes, higher salary increments, or better improved working conditions, all require a positive endorsement by the public. Not only will this encourage politicians to fund programme initiatives that will improve teaching conditions but also teacher education innovations such as extended practice-based pre-service programmes, alternative credentialling programmes, mandated staff development initiatives and teacher induction programmes will be deemed as meaningful by the public.

However, of the many innovations presented at this Austin Symposium caution was raised by several of the conference rapporteurs that many of the current performance models of teacher education, and particularly induction, were operating with a technically narrow definition of developmental fixedness. The performance models were perceived as dysfunctional because they are based on a deficiency approach rather than a developmental orientation (Lasley, 1985). These models are also characterized by business-like mechanistic approaches to evaluation and certification that are uniquely performance-oriented and

deemphasize teacher self-evaluation (Tisher, 1985). Meanwhile the components of teacher education programming that include reflective decision making activities, teaching as praxis (theory and practice in dialectical relationship), self-directed learning, and an instructional syllabus that emphasises the affective domain were identified by the conference rapporteurs as absent from most of the models that have been developed during the seventies and eighties.

Furthermore other presenters at the Austin Symposium (Howey; Schlechty; Corrigan; 1985) suggested that confluence of teacher education will only occur if there is greater collaboration among the stakeholders in programme design and research. As noted in the Symposium proceedings (Hord, O'Neil, and Smith, 1985) the priority of institutions of higher education, local districts and state agencies to investigate the ramifications of induction is critical if teacher educators are to deliver quality teacher induction programmes for beginning professionals.

Induction therefore becomes one aspect of teacher education that requires increased study if we are to validate the purposes of induction as well as to improve the design and delivery of programmes for beginning teachers. Also, if teacher quality is at issue, no group are more vulnerable or a more convenient target than the beginning teachers (Griffin, 1985). An acquired data base on induction programmes would improve the opportunity to help this professional group. Therefore, it appears important that educators must investigate whether the procedures and practices evident in induction programmes are valid and reliable or how



proposed induction programmes may be judiciously influenced by the experience and evaluative data of teachers and teacher educators who have been involved with induction programmes.

Ryan (1982) for example upon examining induction programmes argues that teacher educators must become more aware of the plight of beginning teachers. He emphasizes that most beginning teachers work in isolation within their classroom, they invariably experience initial concerns of self doubt, anxiety and personal challenge while not benefitting from a support system let alone an induction programme. For example, classroom management and instructional practices have been shown to improve greatly with first year teachers by them simply having the opportunity to discuss such practices with their peers (Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982; Glatthorn, 1984).

Greenberg (1983) meanwhile posits that the research and development of induction programmes would amplify the need to promote the interconnection of the basic categories prevalent in any teacher education programme. These three basic categories: philosophical/pedagogical, governance/process and organisational context, should receive he suggests, equal attention within the development or research agenda of teacher educators. Hence, through collaborative research activities and joint academic planning not only would university and district based teacher educators become more aware of the acute realities of instruction and curriculum practices that are experienced by beginning teachers but also pedagogical orientations for developing induction programmes would become more meaningful. Greenberg also empha-

sizes that too often the contextual or political factors of the governance or legislative parameters are emphasized almost to the exclusion of the academic underpinning of the pedagogical orientation of the programme.

The importance of such pedagogical issues was also addressed by Greene (1978) when examining the implications of her disenchantment with the education system. She suggests that multiple possibilities of conceptual and pragmatic solutions will manifest with educators when collaborative endeavours are instituted. Hence, if positive results are to be realized from divergent perspectives of educational reform in teacher education an emancipation of thought may only be possible if a new focus or institutional project may be identified. Various teacher educators (Bolam, 1979; Hall, 1982; Tisher, 1982) have recognized that the construction of a new educational parameter within the context of teacher education has the possibility of ensuring the re-examination of the underlying premises of this educational enterprise as well as the orientation of teachers' professional development activities. Induction has provided the opportunity to provide this necessary focus. For example, much has been written on the theoretical and conceptual premises of self-directed learning over the past few years as it applies to the preparation of teachers (Lynch, 1977; Tough, 1978; Cropley and Dave, 1978; Cross, 1981). Nevertheless, a close examination of induction programmes indicate that a pedagogical orientation towards the promotion of self-directing experiences among beginning teachers is not evident.



Furthermore, despite much commonality in the kinds of specific practices which are advocated within induction programmes (Lacy, 1977; Grant and Zeichner, 1981) and the reliance upon the research of effective teaching to derive the set of standards for induction programmes (Griffin, 1985) the purpose of induction programmes remains problematic. The literature related to induction promoting the enhanced socialization processes of beginning teachers (Ryan, 1979; McDonald and Elias, 1980a, Schlechty, 1985), the literature identifying what is essential knowledge for beginning teachers to learn during their induction years (Clark, 1983; Griffin, 1983; Haigh and Katterns, 1984) and the literature promoting the confluence of the three phases of teacher education that would enhance the continuous professional development of teachers (Hanson and Herrington, 1976; Evans, 1978; Tisher, 1980; Hall, 1982) do not provide substantive description or analysis of why or how these induction practices may be implemented. As Hall (op. cit.) suggests "research possibilities abound. Linking induction research and program practices from several different countries could provide a comparative basis for our limited understanding. For example, how do institutional linkages relate to licensure and pre-service and in-service programs?" (p. 55).

Hence, this thesis will not only examine the connecting or bridging role that induction may play in the confluence of teacher education, but it will discuss the curricular premises that define the conceptual framework of the beginning teacher's experiences as well as analyse the pedagogical implications that induction may play in reforming

this framework. Within this context the self-directed learner and the role institutions might assume in fostering this orientation to professional development will be highlighted. As Cropley and Dave (1978) suggest, one of the major tasks of teacher education, particularly pre-service and induction, "thus become<s> that of facilitating continuous, concurrent learning by providing the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed for continuing learning to occur" (p. 43).

### Statement of the Problem

The objectives of the policies and programme reform activities within teacher education purport that the prevalence of induction programmes will provide a linking structure so as to establish a confluence in teacher education programming (Bolan, 1979; Bush, 1983). Furthermore the pedagogical content of induction programmes will promote continuing education practices that will enhance improved instructional and curriculum activities among beginning teachers. However, despite much support for the introduction of induction programmes (Evans, 1978; Rubin, 1978; Bush, 1980; Tisher, 1980; Ryan, 1982; Battersby, 1982; Barnes and Huling-Austin, 1984; Schlechty, 1985) "there is much that remains to be done both in terms of developing new models for induction and in monitoring the impact of these efforts on teachers" (Zeichner, 1983a, p. 50). Furthermore, the literature provides minimal attention not only to how induction programmes have been institutionalized but also to what constitutes an appropriate conceptual and practical framework for the rationale of such programmes. This problem

needs to be examined so as to illuminate more definitively why induction programmes may improve the quality of teacher education programming as well as how they may enhance the professional development opportunities for beginning teachers. Behind this problem is the basic fact that reform is not happening in teacher education. Opportunities to revitalize and enhance teacher education must require policy and programme reconstruction. Induction programming has been proposed as an essential component of such reformation. However, as Griffin (1985) suggests, the underlying assumption of current induction programmes have not been researched. Therefore the essential problem to be examined is what constitutes programme efficacy of present induction programmes and how may teacher education be enhanced if these programmes were to be conceptually and programmatically implemented so as to promote the confluence of teacher education practices. Hence the basic questions to pursue in examining this problem statement are:

Given the variations of induction programming, within the governance, organisation and academic components, what pedagogical and structural factors should prevail to encourage the confluence of pre-service, induction and in-service education? How may this pedagogical and structural confluence maximize the professional development opportunities for the beginning teacher?

Four major purposes stem from these central questions.

The first purpose relates to the comparative analysis that will be conducted with induction programming from five



different countries Britain, Australia, New Zealand, United States and Canada. Academic governance and organisational components of representative induction programmes from these five countries will be investigated.

The second purpose pertains to the examination of confluence in teacher education as it is reflected in the interconnecting presence that induction may assume between pre-service and in-service education. Structural and pedagogical factors will be identified indicating how the linkage role may be enhanced.

The third purpose invites the researcher to extrapolate from the induction programme analysis a conceptual pedagogical framework for classifying beginning teacher programmes. A classification of five induction programme paradigms that are reflective of different academic orientations will be proposed.

The fourth and final purpose is the identifiable role a selfdirecting professional model of induction may play within the professional development of beginning teachers. The assumption being that induction programmes should promote and enhance the ongoing professional development opportunities for the beginning teacher.

Griffin (1985) identified numerous research questions that substantiate the important investigative activities that educators must pursue. Common to many of Griffin's questions were the topics of programme design, academic orientation, and programme implementation implications as it applied to formal and/or legislated beginning teacher programmes. However, upon reviewing the literature there was no evidence of the development of any analytical framework



that might be used specifically to examine induction programme innovation. Hence it seemed that the only viable means for investigating the academic, organisation and implementation components of induction programmes was to develop an analytical framework. Therefore another contribution of this study will be the presentation of an analytical framework for describing and examining induction programmes.

### Importance of the Study

In summary, the importance of the study rests on three dimensions. First, confluence of teacher education, and the role induction programmes may assume in promoting the pedagogical and structural relationships will be examined. As indicated by Griffin and Hukill (1983) institutional collaboration, although promoted by teacher educators, does not have many historical or current induction models to illuminate such practices. Second, a comparative study of five countries' induction models will be presented given that comparative research regarding induction programmes on an international basis has been minimal. Although some articles have been written on the international nature of the establishment of induction programmes (Tisher, 1980; 1982) most literature has focussed upon evaluative or descriptive studies on a national basis (Bolam, Baker and McMahon, 1979; McDonald and Elias, 1980b; Barnes and Huling-Austin, 1984; Reid, 1985). Finally the importance of this study will be recognized through the development of two conceptual frameworks. One investigative analytical framework will provide teacher educators with a programmatic profile that will

illuminate governance, academic and organisational components of induction programmes. The other analytical framework will comprise the development of five conceptual induction paradigms. These different paradigms will provide a further analytical tool for researchers to consider when investigating induction programmes or when examining the confluence of teacher education.

### Limitations of Study

As case and field study research this study examines systematically the facts and characteristics of induction programmes within five countries. By describing the existing phenomena of induction, the current conditions and practices of their programmes will identify problems, successes and allow comparisons to be made. However, this comparative process leads to a limitation of the study, namely the latitude of variance regarding the documentation. The data sources include policy documents, published reports, evaluation documents, research documentation and fugitive literature. This was complemented by visits to three countries (Britain, U.S.A., and Canada) to conduct interviews and meet legislators, programme developers, supervising teachers and beginning teachers involved in induction programmes. Given the variability of the data source, unilateral documentation sources were not acquired or available within each national jurisdiction. However, any analytical factor that may either be interpretive or spurious within the comparison of the induction programmes will be identified. It should be remembered that the purpose of this study is illustrative and investigative. Its value is the illumination of pedago-

gical and implementation components with induction and the confluence of teacher education.

One other limitation reflects the bias of interpreting the data by the researcher. Given the ideological preference towards the pedagogical paradigm of the self-directed learner certain assumptions regarding the other induction paradigms must be examined carefully. However, the study contains a safeguard for minimizing this bias by comparing the investigative documentation with the formalized evaluation studies and the research literature appropriate to each of the induction programmes' jurisdictions.

Subsequent chapters will clarify any specific delimitations and discuss the implications in detail where necessary.

### Definition of Terms

To assist in the initial interpretation of the terminology used in the review of literature and presentation of data specific terms applicable to the main elements of the study are included in this section. Other terms of reference will be described where necessary.

1. Pre-Service education. The initial phase of the teacher education continuum is defined as pre-service education. This introductory preparation phase of professional development includes academic course work, professional workshops and seminars and student teaching practica. This basal period of the beginning teacher's pedagogical preparation will be described in more detail in the review of the literature.

2. Induction programmes. This component refers to the second stage of teacher education programmes. Specifically



this stage begins immediately after the beginning teacher graduates from a teachers college or faculty of education at a university. Induction programming may extend over a one to three year period of the beginning teacher's professional development. Certification and licensure status of the teacher within the induction phase varies among state and national jurisdictions. In the U.S.A. induction programming is referred to as beginning teacher programming. In Canada both internship and beginning teaching programming are used as descriptors, and in Australia and New Zealand both countries adopt the British terminology - induction programmes.

3. In-service education. As opposed to pre-service education, in-service education provides continued training opportunities both formal and informal to educational practitioners following the first two phases of teacher education. Given that many jurisdictions do not have any formal induction programming, in-service education may apply to any professional development activities that a teacher engages in following teacher certification.

4. Beginning teachers. It is evident within the examination of induction programmes that beginning teachers are described in many terms, e.g., probationer (Britain and Australia), year one teacher (New Zealand), intern (Canada), inductee, and beginning professional (United States). Given that the term beginning teacher may also represent pre-service student teacher it is important for the reader to refer to the context of this discussion when this term is used. The acquisition by the beginning teacher of a university degree, teaching certificate or minimal number of years



of teaching experience may reflect a different application of the term, beginning teacher, in certain jurisdictions.

5. Tutors. The experienced teacher who is assigned (or volunteers) the role of immediate supervisor of the beginning teacher assumes the title of tutor. The term that is used in Britain, professional tutor, is also used in Australia and New Zealand. However, teacher tutor, specialized counsellor and principal supervisor are also used in these countries along with mentor, peer supervisor and master teacher in the U.S.A. and Canada. Not only does the supervisory and evaluative role among the tutors vary within jurisdictions but also the status of the tutor may be an experienced teacher, vice-principal, departmental assistant, principal or head, external consultant or an induction programme coordinator.

6. Professional development. Within this study Bolam's (1980) conceptual framework is used to define professional development. This framework comprises two categories of professional activity. First, formal programming offered by the teacher's employer or other educational agency is classified as one category of professional development. This job related activity may sub-divide into i) a programmatic form of in-service required by the teacher's employer or ii) a self-directed form of in-service that reflects the teacher's instructional or curriculum professional preference. Second, complementary professional pursuits that are personal and only indirectly related to the teacher's instructional role comprise the other category of professional development.

7. Continuing education. Refers to the ongoing professional activity that interconnects the three phases of the teachers' professional development. Within this study continuing education will only refer to Bolam's first category of professional development. Continuing education may be provided to teachers through various educational agencies including professional associations, educational or ministerial authorities, local employment authorities, universities or colleges, teacher centres, and the school or classroom of the individual teacher.

8. Self-directing professional. As it applies to teacher education it is a teacher who sets initial goals for professional improvement and then develops, implements and then self-evaluates a systematic procedure for realizing the goals. "The self-directing professional attempts to become more competent on the job, more influential and more joyful" (Challenge Education Associates, 1980, p. 1). The pursuit of personal and professional excellence underlies this lifetime endeavour.

9. Life-long education. Underlying the definition of self-education is the definition of life-long education. In teacher education it is defined as a humanistic endeavour (Lynch, 1977) that enables individual teachers to extend their personal potential throughout their life while working to improve the quality of life and learning for pupils, teacher colleagues and the community.

### Summary

This chapter has provided the background to the problem, statement of the problem, limitations of study and

definition of terms. In summary, the rationale for this study is based upon the belief that induction programmes offer a unique opportunity to promote the confluence of teacher education. Academic, organisational and governance factors within pre-service and in-service will attain a harmonious interrelationship if induction programmes for beginning teachers honour basic principles applicable to pedagogical design, educational change and implementation practices, and continuous self-directed learning.

Specifically this study will review the appropriate literature on induction and the beginning teacher (section 2), identify the research methodology used in the investigation (section 3), examine five different countries' (Britain, Australia, New Zealand, U.S.A. and Canada) induction programmes (section 4) and provide an analysis of the research data (section 5).

The appraisal of the study (section 6) that includes a summary of the implications, recommendations, and conclusions will provide closure to the thesis. Hopefully the illumination of institutional programming within the induction phase of teacher education will clarify certain basic truths that generate a more knowledgeable profession. As Habermas posits,

"Knowledge equally serves as an instrument and transcends mere self-preservation."

(1972, p. 313)



## Introduction to Section 2:

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

: in books, in books, in books.

Ah, sweet to contemplate the causes,  
not the things!

The soul learns fortitude in libraries,  
Enduring patience in another's pain, . . .

Randall Jarrell

From "The Soldier Walks  
Under The Trees Of The  
University."

A review of the literature in teacher education as it pertains to induction becomes an important foundation for examining the confluence of teacher education. Within the last ten years the increase in publications focussing upon teacher education, induction, and the beginning teacher have been most noticeable (Veenman, 1984). However, literature regarding this topic has focussed primarily on the socialization process of the beginning teacher as well as the instructional, clerical, and management aspects of the teacher's induction experience (Johnson, 1978).

For purposes of this study the review of literature will focus upon the research and academic analysis of teacher education as it applies to four major areas of induction. The first area considers the issues and parameters of teacher



education that influence induction. The second focus considers the philosophical and structural components of teacher education models that may underlie the formulation of induction programmes. The third area of literature review focusses upon the beginning teacher and the documentation that illuminates the basis for introducing induction programming. Finally the fourth area of the literature review provides a brief overview of induction programmes, particularly an examination of the types of formalized programmes that have been introduced in various countries.

## Chapter 2

### ISSUES AND PARAMETERS OF TEACHER EDUCATION THAT INFLUENCE INDUCTION

To illuminate the priority concerns for teacher education reform an examination of various issues underlying this topic will be presented. Several themes have been selected that will clarify the parameters of teacher education that influence the development and implementation of induction programmes. These major themes are policy, professionalism, research on teaching, certification, and programme implementation. However in selecting these five topics for this chapter it is important to recognize that many other factors influence the directions of teacher education reform as it applies to induction programmes. For example the content, standards, and pedagogical orientation in pre-service programmes; the selectivity and recruiting of teacher candidates, complemented by the alarming forecast of future teacher shortage; the concern for improving teacher salaries to compare with other professions; the continuing debate of teacher professionalism and teacher unionism; the overall economic difficulties of most countries in acquiring funding for teacher education reform; and the interrelationship of the school improvement reform movement with teacher education reform are representative of those other factors that influence the parameters of induction programmes. In summary, whether teacher education undergoes a dramatic reformation or assumes an unconscious fossilization, the outcome will depend upon the resolution of a complexity of issues. The first issue to be discussed is the influence of legislative and governance policies in teacher education that

apply to induction.

### Policy

Whether in Perth Australia, Dundee Scotland, Christchurch New Zealand, Newcastle England, Fort Lauderdale U.S.A. or Calgary Canada, teacher education initiatives emanate from policy or legislative reform. Government white papers or national commissions raise public and media awareness of immediate and long term problems facing teacher education. Hence, the challenge of confronting or resolving these issues becomes the responsibility of both the government and the profession within the district, state, country or national jurisdictions. Policies normally reflect four categories within teacher education: i) teaching programme competencies whether instructional or curriculum; ii) governance or certification jurisdiction as it applies to professional standards, salary, promotion, tenure or teacher assessment; iii) factors regarding programme design; and iv) programme implementation. Educational leaders suggest that these education categories are really a political agenda (Corrigan, 1985) with public officials perceiving education reform as a crucial priority within social reform. Hence it would appear that teacher education policy must reflect the preferences of political priorities while hopefully maintaining the academic and organisational principles of teacher education.

In the United States major policy reform has introduced and reallocated a high proportion of tax money towards teacher education, e.g., Florida, Texas, Georgia. This financial support has been forthcoming most abundantly, however there is one caveat. How long will the public support this funding of



teacher education programmes (Morelli, 1983)? Some educators argue that the positive status of the teacher in the community is directly proportionate to the type of public support afforded reform in teacher education (Howsam, 1980; Rubin, 1985). Therefore supportive public attitudes towards the teaching profession would ensure that the value of professional development activities for teachers that require additional public funding, e.g., release time for teachers, teacher consultants, teacher centres and induction programmes would be forthcoming.

Educational politics must also work towards a positive process rather than assume an adversary profile (Yarger, 1982; Sanders, 1985). Recognition of varying perspectives within teacher education among the various stakeholders becomes an underlying principle of policy reform. The unification of differing values and beliefs normally succeeds when a project of collaborative investment is choreographed to include representatives of various institutions. For example in 1977 the Oklahoma State Department of Education appointed a task force to address the certification code (Wisniewski, 1982). Teachers, administrators, deans of education and government officials met to review the various issues applicable to certification. Not only were licensure proposals developed but also a teacher coalition for the state was formed and has continued to debate and propose legislation applicable to "admission standards, the general education component, clinical (practicum) experiences" (p. 61) and induction programming. This active and positive leadership in teacher education within Oklahoma convinced legislators that improved schooling for the state could not be attained without improved



funding for teacher education initiatives. This collaborative enterprise by the Oklahoma teacher educators demonstrates the inherent value of linking educational policy with a positive political process. As Yarger (1982) suggests, a unified supportive position will promote induction programmes only if "the vested interest groups in teacher education establish alliances that will allow them to speak in concert rather than as adversaries" (p. 81).

In conclusion, two compelling perspectives are offered by Cross (1983) when reviewing the reform movement of policy initiatives. First it is suggested that unidimensional corrections "that are imposed from the top and that can be implemented quickly" (p. 169) are not going to overcome the complexities of teacher education reform. Rather innovative options that encourage collaboration ownership at the community level is paramount. Second, the improvement of schooling will be realized more effectively if teachers are entrusted with the challenge to become more responsible for the needed implementation of innovation within the classroom. This implies that policy development at all jurisdiction levels must encourage programming that honours the teacher's professional judgement and perspective regarding their choice, priority and sequence of professional development activity. This pursuit of professional enrichment, rather than instructional remediation, will foster "the spirit of innovation and experimentation that researchers are finding so essential to excellent organizations" (p. 170). The implications of these policy perspectives upon the establishment of induction programmes within teacher education are most critical.

### Professionalism

As alluded to in the previous discussion on policy teacher professionalism, and the rights and obligations it implies, underlines another issue that envelopes teacher education reform. As school systems have become larger and more complex organizations, centralized top-down management models based on the business, industry, or military paradigms have become more prevalent. This hierarchical administrative structure has placed "for practical purposes the teacher . . . at the bottom of the hierarchy" (Howsam, 1980). Hence the teachers' perception of their role and responsibilities within the education system greatly influences their professional priorities and the importance they place on continuing professional development.

The societal status of teachers has not been as favorable within the last several years due to the overall decline in public confidence in the educational system. However, as teachers suffer accusations of incompetence or non-professionalism, teacher education similarly "suffers from portrayals of irrelevance, non-selectivity and general ineffectiveness" (Greenberg, 1983, p. 39). Greenberg further posits that "the gradual erosion of decision-making and individual discretion and trust accorded professional teachers and the concomitant rise of predetermined restrictions which limit the ability of teachers to direct the substance of their work" (p. 39) greatly inhibits the professional development of teachers. Hence the importance of the role teachers assume when making professional decisions regarding the contextual environment of the classroom, the content of the curriculum, and the selection of evaluative practices will reflect the extent of indi-

vidual professionalism that teachers may accrue.

Professionalism in teaching is described by Holye (1974) as the pursuit of enlarging the repertoire of knowledge, skills and procedures required within the process of teaching. Naturally the circumstances and conditions for teachers to become motivated to involve themselves in professional development activities will reflect the quality of this professionalism. Palmer (1978) suggests that motivation of teachers to become involved in professional development activities is due to either intrinsic or extrinsic factors. Intrinsic motivation is the altruistic and unrequited desire by a teacher to improve their craft. Whereas extrinsic motivation is the pragmatic effort by the teacher to attain degrees or diplomas for salary increments or administrative promotion. Irrespective of the underlying motivation, two factors are implicit if professionalism of the teaching force is to be manifested. One, the balance between the autonomy of the practising teacher to determine their professional activities as distinct from the expectations of the employer or professional body in requesting this participation must be established. The other factor is the overall encouragement and sanction provided by the various teacher education agencies to offer worthwhile, creative and innovative options of professional development programming. Both factors will be examined within this study given the inherent importance of the teacher education institutions and the teachers' - both beginning and experienced - role and responsibilities within the induction year.

Professional commitment has been evidenced as crucial to the success of any form of in-service programming (Lawrence,



Baker, Hansen, and Elzie, 1974; Berman and McLaughlin, 1975). Hence it would appear that Hoyle's (1974) heuristic model of the extended professional characterises the essence of professionalism. "Such teachers evidence regular reading of professional literature; in-service work includes courses of a theoretical nature; <and> value is placed on professional collaboration" (p. 318). Furthermore, the teacher's skills and knowledge are acquired through mediation between theory and reflective practice, or as Aoki (1979) describes praxis. For the beginning teacher professionalism may be fostered through many different practices. This study will identify some of those possibilities.

In summary, Howsam (1980) posits that beginning teachers should be encouraged to explore and investigate further remediation or enrichment of their professional craft. However, the beginning teacher should also be provided a secure and safe learning environment for pursuing their professional development. This would ensure that the inductee would openly call upon peers, experienced teachers and consultants to assist them rather than be cautious of the infrequent visits of delegated and impersonal evaluative supervisors. For the beginning teacher professionalism "includes knowing one's own limitations and knowing when to call upon specialists for services beyond one's own capacities" (Howsam, 1980, p. 96).

### Research on Teaching

Underlying the research on teacher education is the abundance of literature that may be defined as research on teaching. Many researchers (Gage and Winne, 1975; Peterson and Walberg, 1979; Brophy, 1984; Doyle, 1985) have provided sub-



stantial arguments to suggest that the research on teaching may provide a strong scientific basis for teacher education programming. However, some educators, although recognizing the value of this research, maintain that other areas of research, i.e., staff development practices (Fullan, 1985), teacher belief systems (Combs, 1978), qualitative evaluative practices (Eisner, 1979), collaborative interactive processes (Tikunoff and Ward, 1979) must equally contribute to the research data that is used as the foundation for initiating reform in teacher education. "Reluctance to utilize this broad base of literature would narrowly minimize the potential solutions for changing or reconceptualizing teacher education" (Barrow, 1985). Nevertheless, induction programmes in the United States, particularly Florida and North Carolina, have relied heavily upon the research of teaching literature to develop their syllabus for their beginning teacher programmes.

Research on teaching, as posited by Brophy (1984), may be classified into five areas: classroom management, teacher effects (linkages between teacher behaviour and student achievement), teacher planning, student mediation of instruction and teacher expectations research. All these categories of research have illuminated effective instructional practice possibilities that may be adopted by the classroom teacher. In fact, the demonstration of teacher effectiveness by the teacher has been dependent upon the mastery of the repertoire of these performance domains and the ability to use these competencies appropriately (Peterson and Walberg, 1979).

The most prevalent example of this research on teaching effectiveness is the translation of these instructional factors or competencies into performance based teacher education

programmes (PBTE). Gage and Winne (1975) define PBTE as "teacher training in which the prospective or in-service teacher acquires to a prespecified degree, performances tendencies and capabilities that promote student achievement of educational objectives" (p. 1467). Given that most teacher education preservice institutions rely upon a performance or competency-based programme of objectives as the baseline for their programme, it is not uncommon to see induction programmes rely on this orientation as well. In Texas for example proposals for using performance-based professional development are being adapted for continuing professional development. Also in Georgia and Florida a competency-based beginning teacher programme is now operating in both states. Fellenetz (1984) supports these initiatives arguing that given the diverse entry levels of beginning teachers the introduction of a system that bases curriculum on professional performance would ensure that "learning is directed by the needs of the participant" (p. 80). However, he also suggests that the adequacy of continuing education programmes may only be ascertained if the teachers' attitude to lifelong learning is promoted. Fellenetz is hopeful that PBTE will be conducive to lifelong learning. Nevertheless, he only sees this occurring if the system promotes "skills and attitudes that will enable the learner to assess one's own learning needs" (p. 87).

Further support, although cautionary, is reflected in Gage's (1984) review of teacher effectiveness research. Gage maintains that research on teaching is definitely demonstrating that "the art of teaching is the existence of one or more relationships between things that teachers do and things that teachers learn" (p. 90). Correlational studies and



empirical experiments (Duncan and Biddle, 1974; Medley, 1979; Ellett and Caple, 1982; Griffin, 1983; Brophy, 1984), for example, have indicated that changing teacher practice causes noticable progress in student achievement. However, this kind of research, Gage (1984) suggests, is relatively "independent of values" (p. 91) and furthermore the application of this research within the context of teacher education must be adaptable to the myriad of complexities within theoretical coursework, practice teaching, supervision practices and teacher assessment.

For example the underlying quality of instructional and interpersonal interactions plays an important part of a teacher's classroom experience. As Berliner (1984) indicates "researchers have found that teachers have about 1,500 interactions per day with different children on different issues" (p. 95). Hence not only would the specific instructional interactions be important to research on this topic but also the philosophical and social context of the curriculum and classroom environment would be important to investigate as well. Therefore the empirical parameters of teaching must be examined equally with the ethical and conceptual. Furthermore, given the pedagogical differences of many teacher educators, the mediation of translating the research on teaching within the various educational orientations becomes a critical task.

The scientific empiricism that is reflected in the technological advances in industry, communication, medicine and more recently education certainly confirm the need to pursue greater exploitation of the structure of science with the act of teaching. However, correlating aesthetics, humanistic values and reflective expression within teacher education



pedagogy becomes a critical agenda topic for induction programming. Hence, the organic and holistic ecological circumstances of the beginning teachers' entry into the profession demands an overview of all contextual factors of teaching. The programmatic challenge for induction is to recognize this situation thus allowing teachers to control sensitively and flexibly those learning conditions that can be arranged and thus encouraging teachers to "recognize that their teaching effectiveness will depend on a preparedness to experiment with, analyse and evaluate their own patterns of thought and action" (Haigh and Katterns, 1984, p. 24). In summary, process product research on teaching and educational research on both instruction and curriculum provide ample documentation from which to develop pedagogical reform. Moreover debate on the appropriateness and contributions of both research approaches seems invaluable to the improvement of the teaching profession. However, whatever pedagogical framework may be devised within teacher education programmes, the research on teaching will always have need for interpretation and adaptation given that "the structures which constrain teachers' thoughts and actions may vary from one institutional, social or political context to another" (Elliott, 1980, p. 322).

#### Teacher Certification and Assessment

Reform in teacher education, particularly the confluence of the three stages in teacher education, will certainly be affected by the implications of licensure and governance policies as they apply to teacher certification, assessment and certificate renewal. The underlying theme of accountability within the teaching profession is most commonly

profiled through changes in certification regulations and the upgrading of teaching credentials (Popham, 1984). Following the lead of the student competency assessment movement teacher competency testing has become most prevalent in licensure reform within the United States. In fact by 1987 it is predicted that thirty-seven states will require competency tests for pre-service certification. Meanwhile almost all other states are considering this form of testing as well (Sandefur, 1985). However before providing a brief overview of the issues and assumptions that emanate from licensure and teacher assessment, it is important to identify the various stages of a teacher's professional career that are regulated by evaluative procedures.

Certainly the most common regulatory opportunity for teachers to be screened or assessed is the admission requirements into pre-service teacher education programmes. Undergraduate and graduate transcripts provide the most consistent form of credential for admission into the initial stages of the profession. However employment and personal references, job experience, particularly as it applies to instructional or leadership responsibilities, and admission interviews may also be utilized. In some jurisdictions basic skill tests are administered prior to entry into teacher preparation programs. These tests usually focus upon reading, writing and speaking. Throughout the pre-service program a comprehensive evaluative system is normally in place. Course work, seminars, curriculum workshops and practice teaching experiences are regularly graded. University professors, teaching assistants, teacher supervisors, and, in some institutions, self-evaluative practices contribute to a comprehensive assessment of the student

teacher's performance. Following this pre-service phase of professional development, certification testing may be administered by the national or state office. Generally these tests examine knowledge in subject matter competency, pedagogy and possibly basic skills (Roth, 1985).

The induction phase of a beginning teacher's career is monitored in various ways. Prior to recommending a teaching position for a new teacher school districts will review pre-service transcripts and references, interview the candidate and carry out their own hiring procedures. For example sometimes an assessment of the teacher's academic abilities is undertaken by the district. In most countries only a probationary contract is offered given that full-time tenure will not be granted until the teacher's performance has been assessed and a teaching position is available. If a formalized induction programme is prevalent, then permanent certification may be awarded after the inductee has completed a successful year of teaching or has met a set of beginning teacher competencies.

Finally, career ladder programmes and continuing accreditation requirements provide the adjudication opportunities for teachers during the in-service stage of their professional development. Whether formalized renewable certification regulations are mandated or pay incentive programmes are offered, many educational jurisdictions in the United States are implementing greater professional accountability within their continuing education programmes. As of 1985 half of all American states have professional recertification requirements (Feistritzer, 1984). These requirements may reflect both



formal and informal professional development programming. In fact "recertification may range from acquiring no additional work, to attending workshops or district staff development activities, to taking a specified number of college hours within a given time span, to completion of a master's degree" (Thompson and Cooley, 1984, pp. 66-67).

Certainly each major stage of teacher education programming has assessment procedures that aim to regulate the quality of its professional members. The assessment criteria, the evaluative procedures and the educational policy guiding each assessment stage are intrinsic to the conceptual framework of the particular component of teacher education. As Eisner (1979) suggests, the educational parameters of evaluative practice normally reflect the underlying intentions of educational enterprise. In summary, Figure 1 (p. 36) provides an overview of the programmatic stages where certification and assessment procedures may be utilized.

One underlying parameter of the certification issue is the interrelationship with the various career stages a teacher may experience , i.e., from entry into pre-service until the teacher retires. Teachers career patterns are generally dynamic and flexible rather than static or fixed. For example the environmental factors both organizational and personal may encourage or inhibit the teacher's pursuit of a positive professional development and career progression (Burke, Christensen, and Fessler, 1984). Furthermore, personal and professional career goals often determine the licensure requirements of individual teachers. Nevertheless, the Association of Teacher Educators (1985) posits that in the future the concept of a career ladder will contribute importantly to

Figure 1

Stages of Assessment and Certification  
Within the Three Stages of Teacher Education

<u>Stage</u>	<u>Procedure</u>	<u>*Governing Jurisdiction</u>
Pre-Service	Admission into Program	University or Teachers College
	Evaluation of Academic, Professional and Practice Components	University, Teachers College and Teaching Profession
	Certification of Graduates	National or State Certification Body
Induction	Hiring Process	School District
	Probationary Contract	School District
	Formalized Beginning Teacher Programme	School District and National or State Certification Body
	Permanent Certificate	School District and National or State Certification Body
In-Service	Renewable Certificate	National or State Certification
	Required Professional Development Activities	School District
	Financial Incentive Programmes	School District and State
	Post Degree and/or Certificate Studies	University and School District
	Career Ladder Plan	School District

\*The governance of certification policy will vary from country to country, state to state.

teacher education and overall upgrading of teaching certification. Similarly school districts will establish additional general criteria for each step of the career ladder, whether it be traditional academic training or specialized in-service in such areas as curriculum development, instructional supervision, and research on school improvement and teacher effectiveness.

Educators such as McGreal (1983), Glatthorn (1984), Wiersma and Gibney (1985) have proposed various methods and data gathering techniques to document teachers' performance. These include classroom observations, interviews, questionnaires, portfolios, peer evaluation, self-evaluation contracts, pupil performance, pupil and parent evaluations, and written tests. For example, a variation on written tests would allow teachers to describe and present what is known about curriculum and instruction and what has been done in the classroom, rather than to examine teachers on what is not known or is irrelevant to their classroom and to their pupils.

Coordinating the stages of assessment and certification teacher educators must recognize that teacher professional growth is an on-going process. To establish a framework for supervision and evaluation that will attend to assessment issues, Davis and Zaret (1984) have formulated a developmental model for evaluation of teachers, applicable to pre-service through in-service. Essentially their model envisions student teaching in pre-service as the beginning of "a transitional dimension in a continuum of professional growth" (p. 19). Inherent in this model is a deliberate plan of student evaluation including a "flexible conception of competencies as descriptive markers" (p. 19) indicating an individual's growth



and adaptation to the attainment of those competencies. Davis and Zaret argue that a developmental approach would allow for formative evaluation, hence recognizing the progressive stages of experience and ability that would also reflect the contextual environment of the different instructional settings a pre-service, inductee and experienced teacher would encounter.

The ultimate benefit or effect of implementing certification and assessment procedures within all or most phases of teacher education programming is not totally certain. If public pressure is the main determinant of initiating regulatory measures as competency testing, then, as Jones (1984) suggests, this wave of concern will pass once the public and the politicians have other issues to pursue. However, if the teaching profession and the teacher educators adopt certification and assessment measures as an intrinsic and on-going process that will complement professional development programming, then the potential benefits will accrue for both teacher education and education in general.

A more radical departure concerning the governance of teachers has been operating in New Jersey since 1983. In this state the certification plan has evolved into a fundamental shift in power from teachers colleges to local superintendents, who will have de facto control over an alternative route of certification for teachers. In essence the local district hires applicants who have a university degree, possess a good moral character and pass on an appropriate subject matter test. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (1984) describe the New Jersey programme as follows:

"The candidate will spend 20-30 days working in a classroom and concurrently attending a seminar dealing with effective teaching, classroom management, and child development. In the second phase of the program, the teacher will take a full-time assignment under the tutelage of a Professional Support Team, which includes the school administrator, an experienced teacher, a curriculum supervisor, and a college faculty member. Also, the provisional teacher will attend seminars after school on such matters as learning theory and student assessment. In the third phase, two or three members of the Professional Support Team will become an Evaluation Team to assess the teacher's potential. A recommendation for final certification must come from the administrator who heads the team" (p. 6).

Critics of this certification plan see the alienation of the the universities in determining the quality and of new professional teachers. Furthermore critics argue that not only would monitoring the quality of teacher preparation be exacerbated but also the high cost of implementing the programme would be a difficult financial burden for the school districts to assume. Nevertheless, given that various states in the U.S, e.g., Texas, Florida, Tennessee, and California, have already adopted pay incentive programmes to reward teachers who meet state and locally developed competency based programmes, it would appear that reforms in teacher certification in the U.S. are already happening.

Recently, Albert Shanker, president of the American Federation of Teachers (Maeroff, 1985), indicated that if teachers are to be fully accepted as professionals, then career ladders and various testing procedures must be implemented. However, he believes that policies, governance structures and certification regulations must reflect the pre-service, induction and continuing in-service components of teacher education. Although no individual national teaching federation has adopted such resolutions at this time it is obvious that licensure issues and the interrelationship with



induction programmes will be an important ingredient of teacher education reform in the future.

### Programme Implementation

A critical challenge for teacher education institutions is deciding how to most effectively introduce innovations of course content, supervisory practices, evaluation procedures and professional practices that would enable these institutions to adjust adequately to the ongoing challenges of the school's social, political and professional environment.

Teacher education programmes, in particular pre-service, have had major problems to address when undertaking innovations in academic or structural format. For instance three major problems have been i) the lack of professional emphasis by university programmes to conduct activities within classroom settings; ii) the dilemma of programme diversity to balance socially responsive emphases with basic skill orientations; and iii) the lack of research and development in teacher education to identify programmatic options, limitations and grounded theories. With respect to the lack of research development it would appear that teacher educators could be examining what relevant research on programme implementation and educational change is available.

For example Howey, Yarger, and Joyce (1978) identified five propositions for how programme implementation within teacher education may be easily facilitated. In summary these propositions are:

i) the establishment of collaborative action among all stakeholders involved in the programme innovation;

ii) the utilization of resource centres or professional



centres where individuals may research and plan programme initiatives as well as provide a neutral meeting location for all stakeholders to meet;

iii) the establishment of research and evaluative procedures as an inherent part of the implementation process emphasizing a collaborative approach that focusses on the myriad of issues facing teacher preparation;

iv) the clarification and organising of what initial, probationary lapsing, incremental or career ladder certification policies need to be established along with the complementary assessment procedures that would monitor such certification programmes;

v) the conceptualization of an overall continuing education and professional development programme that accounts for proposition number four but also recognizes the individual professional and training requirements that must be provided for the teacher educators, supervisors, consultants, principals and mentor teachers.

All five of these propositions for programme implementation have one necessary requirement, the need to foster a unifying goal or purpose that will consolidate their collective endeavours. Hence teacher education agencies must be responsive to the realities of classroom practice, the various orientations of curriculum development, the pluralistic opportunities for programme evaluation and the available research that may illuminate key issues or a viable knowledge base.

However, there must also be a proactive operational commitment to challenge traditional pedagogy and question the principles of professional practice. Teacher education programmes "must foster the spirit of inquiry and experiment, as

well as the undogmatic criticism of the established order, which are prerequisites for introducing needed changes in school" (Husen, 1973, p. 75). Hence dissemination of theory and practice becomes an integral concept of educational pedagogy. Consequently the implementation of relevant strategies promoting this concept becomes a major responsibility of all teacher education agencies. Furthermore pre-service, induction and in-service programmes would hopefully reflect all of these initiatives. Husen further posits that a major emphasis of teacher education programmes must be to deflate the misconceptions of educational theory and encourage application of reflective and analytical practice. He explains that the adjustment of teacher education to regularly change both the determinants in the school system as well as the conduct of research and development programmes" should take place in that spirit of inquiry which permeates all research work and is the quintessence of higher learning" (p. 76).

In addition teacher education institutions should work collaboratively with school districts to engage in appropriate research. A laboratory school for experiments and demonstrations could be organised so that all local universities, colleges and school districts may collectively examine relative instructional or curriculum research questions within a school setting. If individual laboratory schools are either too expensive, unavailable or not technically feasible, then teacher educators could aim to have one classroom in each school where pre-service or induction programmes are operating so as to engage in action oriented research initiatives. Hence research into problems that are introduced through educational reform may easily become an integral part of teacher educa-



tion. Student teachers and their sponsors, beginning teachers and their mentors, experienced teachers and their peers can actually engage in educational research while pursuing a professional training component within teacher education.

Critical to collaborative ventures by all stakeholders in programme implementation endeavours is the need to establish a common language, in essence a clarity of pedagogical terminology. The communicative interplay among student teachers, sponsor teacher, beginning teacher, mentor, experienced teacher, principal, consultant or university advisor will never totally succeed unless educational terms and academic definitions are well understood by all. Time taken to establish a vocabulary that promotes greater understanding will certainly enhance the professionalism among teacher educators.

Considering that little research has been undertaken regarding the programme implementation of induction it is necessary to examine other examples of educational innovation as it applies to teacher education. For instance Lawrence, Baker, Hansen and Elzie (1974) have provided one of the most thorough studies on this overall topic by researching six thousand reports concerning in-service implementation and programme practice. Based on fifty-nine quantitative findings there appears to be various criteria that are applicable to successful induction programmes. Such findings were:

- i) programme leaders that were linked with professional development through teacher centres or universities promoted confluence of theory and practice more readily;

- ii) teachers who were actively involved in the initiating, planning and conducting of the programme were a critical group of change agents;



iii) coaching practices linked with theory/practice programming, demonstration and feedback were most important for the success of the learner's (teacher) progress (Showers 1983);

iv) peer teaching, supervising and self-directed study were preferable methods of programming for teachers;

v) provisions of relevant printed materials and resource materials for participants for learning and applying new skills were invaluable for teachers;

vi) school-based programme activity when emphasizing skill performance of affective objectives was deemed important;

vii) class visitations and demonstrations by colleagues of exemplary experiences greatly benefitted teachers;

viii) allotment of funding was both sufficient and appropriately available for use at district and school-based programming.

All eight of these findings have a direction relationship to the efficacy of induction practice.

Moore and Hyde (1978) further amplified the problematic financial aspects of developing in-service programming by their investigation of professional development budgets. Based on a study of three large metropolitan school districts in the U.S., Moore and Hyde demonstrated that in-service programmes were fifty to sixty times more expensive than original budget estimates. The unexpected costs identified in this research study indicate that introducing new induction programmes to a district might cause similar financial complications for teacher education programme reform.

In another study Wideen and Holborn (1984) identified six

factors that must operate if each education institutions are to experience programmatic change. The six factors suggested are:

- "- the presence of external influence
- the exercising of power within the institution
- the provision of sheltered conditions that offer the teachers freedom to explore new ideas without restriction or disapproval
- a formal or informal structure to act as a capacity for change
- the presence of acceptable change agents
- receptive groups who demand change from both within and outside the institution" (p. 17).

Given that these six factors may apply to any component of teacher education then induction programmes may easily be analysed by these categories. For example, external influences may result from government legislation, i.e., induction programmes in Oklahoma; commissioned reports, i.e., James Report in Britain; and linkage groups, i.e., the teacher centre consortiums in Florida.

In Sarason's (1971) study on the culture of the school he describes the unique differences of the university and school setting. He contends that the misunderstanding by faculty members and classroom teachers of each other's learning environment is reflected by their individual lack of awareness on how change or the introduction of innovation occurs within the other's educational context. To ensure more meaningful confluence of programmatic relationships between these two institutions a commonality of tasks such as the introduction of a common innovation complementary to the interests of both

groups must be established. Hence, the adoption of a mutual agreed induction programme could certainly allow for this commonality of function. However, as Sarason states "any suggestions for change implies two related considerations: first, that one has an explicit theory of change (from which to consider) and second, this theory is appropriate to the setting in which the desired change will be affected" (p. 18).

### Summary

This chapter identified five parameters of teacher education that influence the development and implementation of induction programmes. First, the discussion focussed upon educational policy. Here the issues associated with governance and funding appear centre stage in most countries where teacher education reform is being considered. Second an identification of issues concerning professionalism was shown to provide a perspective on the role and responsibilities of both individual teachers and the professional agencies when adopting and pursuing professional development programmes such as induction.

A third parameter focussed upon the research on teaching. This parameter was described as the potential instrument for change if the breadth of research in teacher education would be expanded to include curriculum and philosophical perspectives. Similarly the knowledge base that is derived by this research was argued to be presented pragmatically and informatively to the profession if its value is to be realized. This chapter also explored the issues of teacher certification and assessment, demonstrating that confluence of teacher education programming must recognize that the interrelationship of



teacher licensure and evaluation programmes must complement a developmental plan of teacher professional development practices. Finally the last parameter described the important challenge of programme implementation that teacher education institutions must consider when introducing induction programmes. As in the other four issues, the established practice of collaboration among all stakeholders was proposed as a crucial factor in the implementation of induction programmes. The challenge to realize what type of collaboration is required in teacher education to pursue a commonly articulated set of aspirations and goals becomes the major task of communication among all individuals interested in teacher education reform. As Greene (1978) suggests this

"communication must be of the kind that enables each participant to find his or her own singular and authentic voice in the process of identifying values common to all, ideals that are shared" (p. 123).

### Chapter 3

#### PEDAGOGICAL PERSPECTIVES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

This chapter provides an overview of the pedagogical perspectives of teacher education. Given the diversity of academic orientation within teacher education, it becomes necessary to illuminate some of these perspectives when establishing an analytical context for induction programmes. Induction may be considered as extensions of pre-service course work, introductory stages within in-service proposals, or independently school-based certification propositions. However, regardless of these programme configurations Zeichner (1983b) indicates that under close examination diverse pedagogical orientations underlie all teacher education programmes. He suggests that each orientation is characterized by a set of common assumptions, goals and a complementary curricular structure. Furthermore these varying academic orientations are reflected in all pre-service and in-service programmes (and presumably in induction programmes as well). Therefore to appreciate the implications of different academic perspectives that may be prevalent an examination of what constitutes these various differences in teacher education programmes is summarised. The discussion of this theme will include the following topics: pedagogical frames of references, dilemma in pre-service content and implications of the practicum.

### Pedagogical Forms of Reference

Renshaw's (1975) review of pedagogical perspectives within teacher education suggests that specialized or main subject study should include four interrelated elements - "the nature of the discipline; the place of the subject in education; the psychological aspects of learning the subject; and the subject matter for schools and teaching methods" (p. 506). The latter three aspects ensure a professional frame of reference while addressing the central core of the specialized subject orientation. Furthermore he perceives that educational theory must provide the teacher with an opportunity to examine educational concepts and to raise fundamental questions while challenging the basis of assumptions and value judgements of those educational theories presented. In summary a theoretical perspective in pedagogical content gives to the teacher "the conceptual apparatus with which to reflect critically and clearly on the nature of their job" (p. 509).

Browne and Skillbeck (1975) meanwhile posit that good pedagogical preparation must include both the academic and the practical so as to ensure practical action and reflective analysis may be simultaneously attained. The importance becomes the understanding of "the distinction between those parts of the course in which theory and practice are immediately seen to be connected and where the link is constantly forged, and those where more mature reflection and some withdrawal from the scene of action to understand a discipline is required" (p. 483).

Academic study in teacher education programmes usually includes curriculum course work. Essentially the function of this area of study may be addressed in three categories:



conceptual, factual content, and methodological (Perry, 1969). Effective instruction of these three component would ensure that theoretical and practical integration would manifest and facilitate the development of professionalism among teachers. However the attainment of this pedagogical integration is not easily facilitated. In fact the dilemma in pre-service education is the achievement of a balance among its pedagogical components.

### Dilemmas In Pre-Service Content

In most educational systems universities and colleges are primarily responsible for pre-service education programmes. The pattern of studies in a pre-service programme generally includes the following concurrent components: academic preparation in psychology, history, sociology and philosophy of education; curriculum or professional studies in generic instructional areas; practice teaching, varying from brief visitations and short practica to extended practica or total school based professional and practical experiences; and specialized subject study reflecting the individual teacher's grade level, curriculum speciality or instructional emphasis, e.g., English as a second language, early childhood.

Throughout each programme a common dilemma appears. Namely, what emphasis should be placed upon either the academic or professional curriculum within the teacher education syllabus? To further appreciate this philosophical dilemma it is necessary to examine what constitutes these two curricular perspectives.

The completion of an academic liberal arts and science programme prior to or during professional studies has always

been deemed essential in teacher education (Ellis, 1969; Browne and Skilbeck, 1975; Renshaw, 1975). The broad academic or liberal educational orientation reflects a traditional selection of coursework comprising sociology, philosophy, psychology, literature, science, etc. Alternatively, the professional studies curriculum is career oriented. In essence it is a pedagogical training orientation and in most teacher certification programmes it is a qualification for no other professional calling. Although this dichotomy often provides conflict within teacher education, successful concurrent implementation of these two orientations becomes a major goal of most teacher education institutions and agencies.

To address this issue Greene (1978) suggests that teacher educators should be aware "that more than technical or applicative knowledge is involved in the effort to function as a professional" (p. 59). Not only must teachers become scholars and theorists in specialized fields but also there is a need for teachers to assume an action oriented role as a foundation for their professional profile. This concept is more than the teacher assuming a role of an extended professional (Hoyle, 1980), that is a teacher who engages in professional development activities and collaborates with their colleagues in professional endeavours. Instead it is a teacher who becomes interested in interpreting and helping others to analyze "the social, political and economic factors that affect and influence the processes of education" (Greene, 1978, p. 59).

#### Product or Process Continuum

To further clarify Greene's perspective it may be worthwhile to define the teachers curriculum and instructional role

in either a product or process model of professional development. The product or linear objectives perspective demands that teachers assume their teaching responsibilities within a predetermined outcome. Teachers are generally expected to improve practice by increasing clarity about goals and outcomes. Instructional practice is therefore pursued in the attainment of teacher proofing. The value of this end-means model focuses primarily on observable objective performance of the teacher.

Alternatively the process model offers a more open-ended and critically reflective form of professional development. These programmes incorporate praxis which is the integration of action and reflection, the unity of theory and practice. In this paradigm teachers base their actions on their beliefs of what an educational experience should be while reflecting upon the outcome of these actions. Educational activities and classroom practices are then viewed more holistically by the teacher. Consequently this perspective of critical analysis may become a fundamental component of teacher educational programmes. Simon Fraser University (Andrews, I., 1983) and University of Utah (Gitlin, 1983) are two examples. Both programmes foster praxis by ensuring that self-evaluation and critical reflection by the student teacher follow every supervision observation. In addition student teachers are provided long-term practicum experiences which help them understand the realities of the classroom as well as the potential interface between the instructional and curricular dimensions of theory and practice. However regardless of the length of the practicum experience Stenhouse (1975) posits that teachers are too often obliged to survive instructionally rather than investi-



gate, problem-solve or engage in artistic enquiry. He sees the objectives model as concentrating on the improvement of instruction without "increment to the wisdom or scholarship of the teacher" (p. 96). Conversely, Stenhouse admits that the major weakness of the process oriented model is that it relies upon the quality of the sponsor teacher as well as the effectiveness of the support and training afforded the student teacher. However, he suggests that this orientation provides a valid prospectus for professionalism in teacher education, this being achieved by the innovative development of individualized professional activities for both beginning and experienced teachers. "Because if teachers are to pursue understanding, develop and refine their criteria of judgement and their range in their subject, they must be able and must have time and opportunity for professional development" (Stenhouse, 1975, p. 96).

#### Competency-Based Instruction

Nevertheless, the product orientation reflected in performance based objectives is prevalent in many pre-service institutions. For example, a review of three hundred and fifty three teacher education programmes in the United States reveals that over fifty percent of the pre-service programmes were using or would be using mandated minimum competency testing (Riggs and Lewis, 1979). The major focus of this competency testing is applied to the generic skills component of the pre-service syllabus.

Popham (1973) supporting a competency-based structure suggests that only three competencies should be considered as criterion to measure student teacher performance. These three

competencies require student teachers to be able: i) to achieve prespecified instructional objectives with diverse pupil abilities, ii) to select and implement appropriate instructional objectives, and iii) to assess unexpected effects of their instruction. Essentially these competency-based objectives reflect the outcome of pupil learning as the basis for teacher performance. In fact Berty (1975) suggests that this pupil performance orientation for measuring student teacher competency has contributed to teacher education receiving the political and legislative support so as to finance new directions and priorities within all three phases of programming. However, other orientations of competency-based programmes do exist.

For example, Brown and Oky (1973) conducted a research study that developed three levels of competencies based on the beginning teacher, experienced teacher and master teacher's perceived skill ability. The study asked pre-service teachers, teachers, teacher educators and principal supervisors to identify competencies from a list of thirty seven that should reflect mastery by the appropriate group of teachers. Brown and Oky concluded that i) there was a perceived sequencing of objectives that could be applied to beginning, experienced and master teachers skill levels, and ii) given that it is impossible for pre-service and beginning teachers to achieve mastery in all competency areas of instruction. A priority selection of competencies for pre-service and induction programmes was deemed relevant.

Meanwhile, Wasserman and Eggert (1973) perceive competency based programming differently. They define their "profiles of teaching competency" as an evolutionary process be-

lieving that refinement through practice must be ongoing throughout a teacher's career. They suggest that what the teacher does to create the conditions in which learning takes place should be the basis for the profiles of competency. Hence the three areas of focus that become the core of their teacher education programme include: i) teacher as role model for students; ii) teacher's interactions with students; and iii) teacher's contributions to the environment of learning.

Newman (1974) on the other hand proposed that the development and use of competencies should not only provide instructional relevancy in both the cognitive and affective domains but also provide some concrete criteria for student self-assessment. Competencies as a self-evaluative tool enable teachers to assume ownership of their own professional development as it pertains to relating behaviours in the classroom and to recording their perceived growth of their instructional effectiveness.

However not all educators are as totally supportive of competency-based programmes. Gay and Daniel (1972) are concerned that educators will only focus upon those competencies which are easy to identify and measure. In addition Kaplan and Rothkopt (1974) observes that competency-based programmes devote too much emphasis on practice and performance diverting teacher educators from the importance of theory. Furthermore a major review of the performance-based teacher behaviour variables in fifty studies conducted over the 1960's (Heath and Nelson, 1974) suggested that "the relation between teacher behaviour and student achievement does not offer an empirical basis for the prescription of teacher training objectives" (p. 480). Heath and Nielson support these claims on the limita-



tions of competency-based programmes due to their reservations of the research failing to reveal an empirical basis for performance-based teacher education programmes. Their analysis of the research indicated that the "literature fails to provide such a basis, not because of minor flaws in the statistical analysis but because of sterile operational definitions of both teaching and achievement and because of fundamentally weak research designs" (p. 481). Correspondingly they claim that given the research that indicates strong interconnection of student achievement with such variables "as socio economic status and ethnic status, the effects of techniques of teaching on achievement are likely to be inherently trivial" (p. 481).

In summary the recognition by teacher educators of the strengths and limitations of the product perspective emphasizes the dichotomy of viewpoints that could influence the development of induction programmes. Furthermore, the consequences of this orientation being more predominant in teacher education may negate the strengths and values the process orientation may offer induction programmes.

#### Implications of the Practicum

The practicum is based upon a supervisory system that socializes beginning teachers to the adoption of both curricular and instructional programmes that correlate to the pupils' needs and to the experiential or competency requirements of the pre-service programme. However Aoki (1984) suggests that pre-service programming should also cultivate a teacher who undertakes a self-critical approach to their instructional performance, curriculum priorities, and educa-

tional environment in both classroom and school. Hence student teachers and beginning teachers should be encouraged to regard themselves as agents for change so that upon entering the profession they may work with experienced practitioners who are also engaged in the processes of innovation and discovery (Browne and Skillbeck, 1968). Active participation of this endeavour by beginning teachers will ensure a greater sense of personal responsibility and involvement in their own professional development. However Skillbeck (1975) argues that the socialization process experienced by teachers, while becoming acculturated to a new working environment, greatly prevents the beginning teacher's role of becoming an agent of change. Hence he suggests that more practicum orientation experiences in pre-service combined with a focus on the inquiry model for curriculum and instructional programming will assist beginning teachers to enter their first year not as neophyte but as inquiring, action oriented professionals. Lortie (1975), Howey, Yarger, and Joyce (1978) further argue that when schools of education collaborate with the school system in field-based training programmes they are normally ensuring that the teacher will adapt more readily to the traditional teaching roles of the existing school system. Hence it becomes essential that problem inquiry provide an important framework for the dialogue and supervisory relationship of the beginning teacher and the mentor. As Freire (1970) suggests, "problem-posing education bases itself on creativity and stimulates true reflection and action upon reality" (p. 71). It is this transformation of creative inquiry between the beginning teacher and the various supervisors that is essential if the self-directing professional is to emerge. Hence a manifesta-



tion of this process is critical thinking. Therefore it becomes incumbent upon the sponsor to model critical enquiry within their own practice if the beginning teacher is to model such critical assessment of their own work in the classroom. A linear assessment by the supervisor without dialogical interaction with the beginning teacher becomes a narrowly defined and delimiting process. In turn the manifestation of critical thinking among the beginning teachers will not evolve.

It is unfortunate that many sponsor teachers do not adhere to a dialogical orientation. Instead their methodological orientation of giving knowledge and skills becomes the sole mandate of their professional interactions. It is not a paternalistic sage that they need to exemplify but rather a humanistic facilitator who models wisdom, patience and a critical reflective approach to learning. Hence both school-based and university personnel need to encourage their student teachers to acquire a practical knowledge of the classroom and teaching that reflects their personal beliefs and values rather than be a mirror of the bias and predilections of their supervisors.

Elbaz (1981) suggests that teachers possess varying degrees of practical knowledge. Hence their involvement in the instructional and curriculum process must have a major focus within their autonomous decision making function. To promote this awareness Elbaz undertook a case study so as to establish a framework for practical knowledge. Her qualitative research findings (Schutz and Luckmann, 1974; Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, 1976; Elbaz, 1980) substantiated five orientations of practical knowledge: situational or intuitive, personal, social, experiential and theoretical. Detailed analysis of



each orientation concludes that the complexity and variety of the teacher's knowledge is broad based. Teacher education therefore becomes the examination of this knowledge through an ordering and structuring of this practical knowledge.

Hence, no matter what pedagogical orientation emphasis is presented among the various references within this review of literature, one similarity does remain constant. Educators do place importance upon the need for curriculum development and instructional methodologies to emanate from educational theories that provide meaningful integration with the practicum component. Theoretical frameworks have the potential for ensuring that good practice will manifest when these theories challenge or presuppose the understanding that comes from utilizing theories within practice. To engage in educational theory is itself essential to good practice. For as Barrow (1981) states "engaging in educational theory means thinking or reflecting about what should go on in the name of education, and why and how" (p. 3). Interestingly enough Barrow does not argue that the study of theory should necessarily engage teachers substantially during their first years in the profession. Rather, he believes educational theory should be examined intensively after they have taught for a few years. "Such an arrangement would allow the study of theory to take place without the distractions or anxieties about beginning teaching, excessive and unrealistic wishful thinking and basic ignorance" (p. 7).

In conclusion, the past 15 years have seen a difficult if not controversial evolution of teacher education programming (Grumet, 1984). Scholars, politicians, bureaucrats and educators are most vocal about the underlying philosophical,

social, and professional perspectives that teaching and teacher education should reflect. However, these perspectives, although many times substantive, are often contradictory. For example, teacher preparation and professional development programming are sometimes portrayed as artistic endeavours (Eisner, 1979; Stenhouse, 1980; Rubin, 1984). Whereas other educational scholars perceive teacher education as a scientific proposition (Popham and Baker, 1970; Gage and Winne, 1975, Cohen and Manion, 1977). Nevertheless, whether the teacher is perceived as an autonomous professional pursuing an art form or as an empiricist preferring to predict and control instructional performance, the implications for the academic orientation of induction programmes and its impact upon beginning teachers should be understood.

### Summary

Within this chapter the variations of pedagogical perspectives of teacher education have been discussed. Reflected in each of the items addressed was the underlying theme of differing perspectives that must be identified and understood when considering teacher education reform and the adoption of induction programmes.

Pedagogical reform in teacher education must consider a holistic programme of study that includes a conceptual, factual, and methodological balance within its academic and professional framework. Practical knowledge must also be reflected in this framework so as to ensure that the teacher's knowledge is broad based and personally relevant.

Philosophical variance within teacher education programming includes: i) the balance of academic and professional

curriculum; ii) the interdependence of the product oriented and predetermined outcome model of professional development vis-a-vis the open-ended process, critical reflective model; and iii) the benefits and limitations of competency-based programming.

Recognition of a need to entertain pluralistic options within teacher education and consequently induction programmes not only provides a more balanced programme of study but also it honours the beginning teachers' mandate to become accountable, self-directing and pedagogically appreciative of their professionalism within the reality of their teaching experience. For as Susanne Langer (1942) proposes,

"for a balanced active intelligence, reality is historical fact and significant form, the all inclusive realm of science, myth, art and comfortable common sense" (p. 289).



## Chapter 4

## BEGINNING TEACHERS

The most traumatic transition for teachers within their professional career is the acceptance of their first teaching assignment. Not only are beginning teachers entering the first contractual and salaried phase of their career but also the major responsibilities of instructional planning, lesson implementation, pupil assessment and the myriad of other teaching responsibilities fall exclusively upon their shoulders. This induction year in the teaching profession is also a critical phase for the teachers' professional development, both in an instructional and a supervisory sense. As Ryan (1980) suggests "many of us who have studied what happens to first year teachers believe that events during this initial year contribute to the gap between what they were capable of becoming and what they have, in fact, become" (p.4).

Therefore, this chapter will highlight the research findings concerning the practical realities of beginning teachers' experiences during their induction year. To extrapolate the information more efficiently two themes have been selected. The first theme is the socialization process beginning teachers experience upon entering their school, their classroom, in fact upon entering the profession in general. Issues and difficulties of both a personal and professional nature will be discussed. The second theme concerns the instructional demands and challenges that the beginning teacher must accommodate, or potentially master, during their first years in the classroom. A focus upon the situational

constraints and instructional context of the beginning teachers' experiences will be examined.

### Socialization Experiences

To discuss the socialization of beginning teachers, one parameter of the literature on the induction year must be clarified. Generally there is an assumption that the new professional is teaching full-time with a permanent position. Furthermore, there is the understanding that the employer has guaranteed continuous employment at the appropriate grade level or with the correct subject emphasis. Unfortunately, due to the difficult economic conditions, the decreasing student enrolments, and the increase in academic standards for teacher graduates the opportunities for immediate employment following graduation have been minimized. Research therefore has not distinguished or categorized the experiential differences among tenured or untenured beginning teachers. However, it is important to remember that the greater stress, hardship and uncertainty that encumbers the untenured beginning teacher simply compounds the socialization issues and difficulties of both a personal and professional nature that all beginning teachers experience in their induction year.

### Personal Dimensions

In fact, research studies (Ryan, 1979; McDonald and Elias, 1980) have shown that teachers who are secure in their job, created by an environment of increasing pupil enrolment and permanent contracts, are more ready to accept curriculum change and instructional innovation. Logan (1982) indicates that minimizing personal and professional pressures allow teachers to focus upon their instructional challenges more

openly and positively. Maslow's (1968) distinction between inner-directed and outer-directed personality types is also suggested by Logan to have a strong bearing on the willingness of teachers to work in an insecure, unpredictable and unorderedly environment. The inner-directed teacher who is self-directing, self-evaluating and critically reflective undertakes the uncertainty of job security, new situational challenges and instructional innovation far more naturally and productively.

Hence, the implications for the socialization of beginning teachers seem to suggest that inner-directed beginning professionals will benefit not only from their personality and professional style but will also become initiated into the unpredictable and complex environment of the beginning years of the profession more easily.

Complementing this perspective is the developmental factor of self-concept that is implicit to the socialization process of all beginning teachers. Burns (1979) upon reviewing relevant research suggests that "the possession <by teachers> of positive self attitudes facilitates the construction of warm, supportive relations with others" (p. 302), such as pupils and colleagues. Furthermore, Burns sees positive self-concept among teachers facilitating overall improved classroom performance. He also suggests that the effects of pre-service programming that promote self-concept have positive consequences for personality and interpersonal development for teachers in the beginning stages of their career. In fact, Rosenberg's study of teacher values (1955) collaborates the importance of the self-concept component of a teacher's preparation noting that over half of the "people oriented" teachers possessing



positive self-concept remained in the profession as compared to only two per cent of the "non-people oriented" teachers who did not possess a positive self-concept.

Socialization issues within teacher education programming not only refer to the personality traits and motivational characteristics of teachers as described in Ryan (1980), Burns (1982), and Cross (1983), but also the institutional and professional circumstances beginning teachers encounter when entering their induction year. Such studies as Eddy (1969), Taylor and Dale (1971), McIntosh (1978), Zeichner (1983a), and Griffin (1985) emphasize that contextual factors of teaching assignment, staff interaction, supervisory support systems role of mentors, and the behaviour of the pupils provide another variety of socialization concerns for beginning teachers.

Interestingly the professional environment of the beginning teacher is not the only major personal socialization challenge that faces beginning teachers. For most new teachers graduation from university has usually preceded entry into the teaching profession. Hence, along with the obligations and responsibilities of starting a new job most of the individuals are beset with many new pressures and challenges to their personal life. For instance, the following list of factors may be mixed or matched but essentially most beginning teachers encounter these verities of life:

- leaving the securities of campus and student life,
- undertaking new financial expectations and pressures,  
e.g., car, domestic items,
- dealing with financial debts or student loans remaining

- to be paid,
- acquiring a new apartment or home and its responsibilities,
- preparing one's own meals and other domestic obligations,
- living in a new community possibly away from friends and family,
- becoming married, its demands, lifestyle adjustments,
- changing living patterns and possibly lifestyles.

In total, all these factors complicate the beginning teachers' smooth transition into their newly acquired status of teacher. Combined with their new professional responsibilities, the personal agenda that new teachers adopt or inherit does indeed fragment the energy and time commitment that is demanded of their new professional role. As the research suggests (Lortie, 1975; Evans, 1978; Ryan, 1980), the beginning teachers' positive professional experience may be directly proportional to the socialization factors and quality of transition that they experience in their personal lives when entering their first year of teaching.

### Professional Dimensions

Professional socialization experiences for the beginning teacher normally necessitates "being fitted into an existing system" (Evans, 1978, p. 89). From the first job interview, to receiving the first school and class assignment, to becoming acquainted and responsible for the school regulations, to finally teaching a prescribed or at least recommended curriculum, beginning teachers immediately encounter an obligatory set of professional expectations. Nevertheless, unless some

formal induction system is present, "it is possible for a newly employed teacher to receive no help at all from any kind of initiative and little through the informal system of the school" (Joyce, 1980, p. 28). Moreover, becoming a teacher has certain expectations or "rites of passage". As Eddy (1969) suggests, "beginning with the initial formal orientation to the school, the beginners undergo an intensive formal and informal training period in which the culture of the school, with its long history, is transmitted to them" (p. 23). Adam's (1982) longitudinal study of teachers further supports this claim noting that beginning teachers seek a "safe level" of performance during their beginning years.

While examining the experience of a group of beginning secondary school teachers, Vonk (1983) indicated that the socialization role of the beginning teacher changed from a permissive instructional style to a process that was more custodial. The context of the school curriculum and instructional regulations were shown to cause beginning teachers to become more teacher centered and to develop a hierarchical teacher-student relationship. In suggesting that beginning teachers' problems are role socialization problems, Vonk states "it is clear that the role conception practised in schools largely defines the children's expectations of the role behaviour of the beginning teacher" (p. 138). Similarly he concluded that during the first year of teaching the beginning teacher encountered two phases of socialization, the "threshold period" and the "growing up" period.

Essentially the role conception differences of these two induction phases is reflected within the initial phase of a devolutionary realisation of pre-service programming ideals



and theoretical predications by the beginning teacher. This situation is further complemented by the pragmatic balance of the teacher's abilities, interests and organisation skills with the theoretical constructs that were learned in pre-service within the classroom and school environment context.

This perspective may appear discouraging for teacher educators. However, if teachers are not given positive induction conditions proposed by Taylor and Dale (1971), Tisher (1980), and Zeichner (1983a) such as: additional planning time, supportive supervisory assistance, a fairly distributed homogeneous group of pupils, and realistic performance and assessment standards, then problems at both the classroom and school level will manifest for the beginning teacher.

#### Pre-Service Programme Factors

Upon review of the British and American literature, Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) contend that the impact of pre-service programming is ineffectual to a large degree during the induction year. Furthermore they suggest that "the only debate seems to be over which particular socializing agents or mechanisms play the greatest role in reversing the impact of the college" (p. 7) or university pre-service preparation. Nevertheless, Ryan's (1979) extensive study of beginning teachers indicated that while the first year of the neophyte teacher is not very stable, the initial placement greatly determines the quality and success of the teacher's instructional performance. Therefore, socialization into the profession may become a positive or negative experience for the beginning teacher depending on the facilitative and encouraging role staff members, the principal, pupils, parents and

district administrators may assume.

Cortis (1979), in summarizing his research on a twelve year longitudinal study of teacher behaviour, showed both stability and change as equally evident in the professional evolution of a teacher. However, the findings drew "attention to the survival aspects of teaching and provide a cold dose of realism for the more woolly minded who believe that teacher development is solely a matter of the proliferation of courses and good intentions" (p. 215) at the pre-service stage. Hence it would appear that there are both formal and informal socialization processes that influence beginning teachers. Pataniczek and Sigler (1981) suggest that the formal socialization process begins during the pre-service programme experiences, particularly the practicum, which is followed by the second socialization process namely the district hiring procedure. The next stage is the ceremonial induction of the beginning teacher into the profession, generally organized by the teacher union or professional body. The final phase of formal socialization is manifested in the evaluation and supervisory visitations by school administrators or consultants with the beginning teacher. Normally all of these processes generally form a sequential pattern. However, the informal or unplanned incidents of socialization equally comprise an influence upon the beginning teacher.

For instance, Lortie (1975) believes that the inductee begins his career in a sense of isolation and fragmented support during pre-service and this sets the expectations during the induction year. "The absence of a 'shared ordeal' in pre-service training is appropriate socialization" given

that the "psychological isolation in formal pre-service training, then, begins a process in which new teachers, in effect, socialize themselves" (Pataniczek and Sigler, 1981, p. 16).

### The School Environment

Two other informal but potent socializing factors for the beginning teacher include the organisational structure of the school and the influence of colleagues. Organisational factors have been observed or acquired by the student teacher through the latent culture during pre-service (Lacy, 1977), but attitudes, philosophical orientations and interpretations of curriculum continue to be acquired during the induction year within the beginning teacher's school context. Working conditions for beginning teachers are normally compounded by large classes, extracurricular activity assignments, little preparatory time during school, and in essence a yeoman's burden that seems to reflect a ritual of socialization into the routine of the school system. McIntosh (1976) and Ryan (1980) also found that the potential beneficial influence of the experienced teacher in assisting the first year teacher is rarely evident. Reluctance by master or senior teachers to interfere and apprehension by beginning teachers to indicate their difficulties consequently mean that these individuals do not naturally interface. As McIntosh (1978) suggests "the isolationism and defence were not one sided. The experienced teachers hesitated to offer assistance and the beginning teachers hesitated to ask for it" (p. 46). Consequently this independence by beginning teachers causes them to initiate, if they so choose, the pursuit of their own professional development. Similarly there is not much opportunity for beginning teachers to interact



with their peer group given that each beginning teacher is either too busy to meet, or unable to visit another teacher during the course of the teaching day.

It would appear that the neophyte teacher is greatly isolated or restricted into a set socialization pattern. As evidenced by the research of Gehrke (1981), socialization is the presence or the absence of a professional interrelationship among teachers. Consequently, "individual teachers relate selectively to the various potential reference groups" and these "relationships develop and change over time depending on the context and on the individual's needs and perceptions" (p. 36).

Lortie (1975) also suggests that if the induction process is not formalized more carefully, earlier conservative influences experienced in twelve years of schooling or during pre-service training will not be systematically offset during the beginning years of the teacher's career. "Nor does later work experience supplement low impact training with a general conception of teaching as a shared intellectual possession" (p. 81). Therefore, fundamental to the beginning teacher's dilemma upon entering the school is the choice of being socialized to the predetermined roles of teacher behaviour and purveyor of the institutional norm, or the choice of remaining professionally independent and honouring one's own values and those of the student. Hence, one may suggest that induction programmes must respect the natural evolutionary socialization process of teachers but encourage natural collaboration with peers and experienced teachers that will enhance the quality of the inductee's entry into the profession.

In summary "socialization of the beginning teacher is

highly context-specific and dependent in each case on unique combinations of the personal characteristics and resources of the individual beginning teachers and the varying encouragements and constraints posed by the situations in which they work" (Zeichner, 1983a, p. 34). Although Hanson and Herrington (1976) suggest that "the only way apparently open to probationers was to conform to the conventional wisdom and recipe knowledge of those around them. Beginning teachers do attempt to expand and innovate within their instructional practice where supportive supervisory environments prevail. Strategic redefinition by teachers in acquiring ownership of their professional development (Lacy, 1977) does illustrate that not all beginning teachers will succumb to a strategic compliance or be totally overcome by the professional regulations and expectations of the induction year. Certainly one may conclude that not all teachers will lose their idealism or experience transitional shock during their first year of teaching. Each teacher will respond differently to institutional restraints. Meanwhile encouragements given to the beginning teacher's "unique biographical history, the strength with which teaching perspectives are held, the level of a teacher's 'coping skills', the teacher's cognitive-developmental maturity and the degree of sensitivity to the organisational dynamics of schools" (Zeichner, 1983a, p. 45) are all invaluable factors in the positive maturation of the beginning teacher.

## Instructional Challenges

### Pre-Service Factors

The beginning teacher's instructional abilities and professional potential have been generally well evaluated and documented during the pre-service teacher education programme experiences. Nevertheless, the predictability of a beginning teacher's aptitude and success based on pre-service experience are disputed within the literature. Two comprehensive longitudinal studies by Jenkins (1978) and Fratiani (1979) suggest that academic grades, student teaching evaluations, and professional recommendations are invaluable predictors when examining beginning teachers' success. Nevertheless, student teacher success has not been correlated to any specific teacher education orientation or a specific curriculum of study. However, Jenkins and Fratiani do show that quality student teachers who have done well in pre-service normally succeed in their beginning years of teaching. In contrast Villene's and Hall's (1980) research indicates that university pre-service success in professional and academic studies do not have any bearing on the beginning teacher's performance. This research suggests that institutional regulations, instructional complexities and professional support systems all directly effect the performance of the inductee. As Yinger (1983) posits, skilled performance by teachers is in essence teachers orchestrating "a tremendous body of knowledge using skills that are uniquely suitable for the problems at hand. In other words attaining expertise involves a mastery of a unique set of symbols and operations . . . the language of practice" (p. 81).

Generally university teacher educators believe that all



pre-service programmes can provide are the skills and knowledge to become a beginning teacher. On the surface this premise seems logical. However, if that is to be the main priority then does that not undermine the linkage role pre-service may assume within the confluence of teacher education (Unruh, 1984)? Furthermore, if confluence of pre-service and in-service is to be achieved, then Unruh posits that both pre-service and induction programmes must attend to more enduring and ongoing skills, knowledge and values that teachers must appreciate and thus manifest beyond their beginning months in the classroom, i.e., self-directed learning, curriculum development and instructional analysis skills, to name but a few.

Similar instructional concerns for teachers are shown to be equally present among pre-service and beginning teachers (McDonald and Elias, 1980; Clark, 1983; Stallings, 1983). However, to categorize the unique differences of the various stages of a teacher's development, Fuller and Brown (1975) have identified three levels of concern. Survival concerns are the basis for the first stage with beginning teachers focussing upon personal adequacy, class control, supervisors' observations and assessment. The second stage underlines the teaching situation concerns. Working conditions, quality of instructional materials and the overall professional context of the job characterize this stage. Finally, the third stage depicts the teacher's concern for the pupils as the predominant focus. "These are concerns about recognizing the social and emotional needs of pupils, about the inappropriateness of some curriculum material for certain students, about being

fair to pupils, <and> about tailoring content to individual students" (p. 38).

Underlying this sequence of concerns is the overall behaviour change that the teacher affords the evaluation of their progress. Fuller and Brown suggest that internal self-evaluation, self-observation and external self-evaluation are important processes that must be encouraged to assist the beginning teachers instructional development. The matching or interrelationship of these evaluative experiences not only reduces discrepancies for the teacher but also improves the quality of their overall critical reflection and teaching craft. Once the assessment process has begun, the teacher's awareness of instructional improvement may be attended to as well as identifying curriculum resources, new methodological practices or supervisory assistance to overcome or enrich the necessary components of the instructional concern.

#### Programme Content of Induction

Vonk's research (1983) and Griffin's (1985) induction research projects have identified various instructional categories that may be considered as a focus for induction programme content. These categories include: content of learning material, organization of teaching and learning activities, pupil management and discipline, pupils' motivation and participation, teacher self-evaluation, interpersonal relations and communication with pupils, staff colleagues and supervisory personnel, and knowledge of school regulations and the professional code of ethics. One may assume that mastery of these pedagogical components would assure that beginning teachers would successfully undertake their first year of teaching.



However, as Haigh and Katterns (1984) point out, given the complexity of teaching this craft must be appreciated for its holistic and organic nature not simply its linear and mechanistic processes. Hence they believe that beginning teachers must be responsive to interactive and situational dimension of teaching while being "able to draw upon knowledge from a wide repertoire of teaching modes, as well as their associated skills, to plan and create learning environments that are appropriate for different kinds of learning outcomes" (p. 24).

As Williams, Eismerman, and Lynch's (1985) study points out, the inadequacies of pre-service programmes can never be totally overcome because the "expectations of students, herself <the beginning teacher>, potential teaching problems and her means for coping, along with her expectations of her need for feedback" (p. 13) are very idiosyncratic to the classroom context of the first teaching assignment. Hence the demand for induction programmes is to recognize that instructional support during the first year for beginning teachers must be focussed upon the instructional context of their classrooms. Williams et al. also believe that preparing and supporting beginning teachers in the learning and using of self-evaluation techniques will also increase their performance as teachers.

When examining the consequences of pre-service preparation among beginning teachers during their induction year, Hord and Hall (1979) surveyed eight universities that were conducting follow-up studies on their graduates. Three findings have relevance for this discussion. One, no clear evidence was found to explain the best approach to modify a teacher's performance. In other words, the influences that



affected the improvement of a teacher's performance were varied and not always complementary. Two, "teacher behaviours which are effective in one setting (grade level, subject matter, type of student, etc.) may not be effective in another setting" (p. 193). Consequently, the basic core of teaching strategies deemed generic may not be generally applicable. Three, beginning teachers from all studies demonstrated strengths and weaknesses irrespective of their pre-service training. Hence, attending to pre-service programme reform alone may be secondary when considering the socialization and instructional support induction programmes must address for the beginning teacher's individual needs. For as Carrier (1982) suggests, providing developmental environments for teachers' personal and professional tasks and experiences will provide substantial improvement in the teacher's performance.

### Theory-Practice Components

Another perspective of this point may be examined in connection with Schön's (1983) work on the theory-practice relationship of instructional content, an important component within beginning teachers' instructional context. Schön points out that various writers have posited that the divergence between professional knowledge and actual practice is most problematic. Schein (1973) suggests that basic and applied knowledge are convergent whereas practice is divergent. Hence in teacher education, instructional theories promogate a clearly defined perspectus of teaching strategies whereas the application of these ideas fluctuates due to the competence of the teacher, the abilities of pupils, the classroom setting, etc. Glazer (1974) meanwhile believes that the profession of

teaching, unlike medicine and law is not sufficiently absolute nor rigorous within its academic content. Hence he believes the "minor profession" has too many changeable contexts of practice to ensure harmonious articulation of theory and practice. Finally, Simon (1972) contends that professions such as teaching do not adhere to a statistical decision theory and a management science paradigm. The alternative models of teaching, the use of qualitative evaluation and research methodology and the phenomenological approach to curriculum development all validate this fact. Nevertheless, Schön (1983) argues that professions do have another paradigm to examine and explore which does enhance the articulation of theory and practice. It is this perspective that offers a framework for teacher education, in particular the induction phase of the teaching profession. This paradigm that fosters collaboration between the two orientations is called reflection-in-action.

Reflection-in-action by the beginning teacher translates into such questions as what characteristics of children's behaviour do I notice when I recognize they are not learning satisfactorily? What criteria do I select when evaluating a pupil's drawing, creative essay, biology experiment or geometrical solution and why did I choose that particular evaluative criteria? What procedures do I select when organizing the questions on cognition for the socials learning centres? What are the various ways I solicit response from students when asking questions? What factors influence my decision on classroom management or discipline issues? Why do I prioritize the various curriculum areas within the weekly timetable? What influences the organisation of my semester programme of



studies? How do I decide when to solicit help from my colleagues, the principal or the district consultant? "Knowing in action is therefore the characteristic mode of ordinary practical knowledge" (p. 54).

Schön states that

"when someone reflects-in-action, he becomes a researcher in the practice context. He is not dependent on the categories of established theory and technique, but constructs a new theory of the unique case. His inquiry is not limited to a deliberation about means which depends on a prior agreement about ends. He does not keep means and end separate, but defines them interactively as he frames a problematic situation. . . His experimenting is a kind of action, implementation is built into his inquiry" (p. 68).

Given that most models of professionalism are based on the technical rational model, reflection-in-action is not generally accepted - even by those who do it - as a legitimate form of professional knowing (p. 69). The dilemma of rigour or relevance for the beginning teacher may be resolved if we can develop an epistemology of practice which places technical problem solving within a broader context of reflective inquiry.

### The Artistry of Instruction

The artistry of the teaching craft has been alluded to earlier as an important dimension of instructional performance. Beginning teachers must be encouraged to appreciate "the virtues of spontaneity and invention" (Rubin, 1983) while also understanding the need to adopt the skills of educational connoisseurship which is distinguishing what is significant while illuminating one set of instructional or curriculum practices with another (Eisner, 1979). Furthermore Rubin (1984) suggests three instructional parameters should be incorporated into the teacher's craft so that this artistic



perspective will be realized within the efficacy of teaching. These three phenomena are (i) stochastic pedagogy, an interpersonal ability to use initiative and unpremediated decision making; (ii) collateral teaching which has teachers pursuing "multilateral aims", various teaching strategies and appreciating eclectic evaluative procedures; and (iii) pedagogical intelligence that reflects the teacher's knowledge, attitude, skill and attributes being utilized collaboratively in overcoming their limitations while enriching their instructional strengths. Rubin suggests that "teachers who, through self education, have developed their pedagogical intelligence exploit the principle of compensating forces" (p. 20).

#### Curriculum: Knowledge and Skill

Another area of importance for beginning teachers efficacy is working with curriculum. Beginning teachers are particularly challenged by the implementation of the prescribed or mandated district or state curriculum. Lack of familiarity with the curriculum resources as well as general inexperience in teaching the entire syllabus for a full year places difficult demands upon the first year teacher. Furthermore, the continuing problem in curriculum implementation affects all teachers. In essence, despite the technically efficient and instructionally creative curriculum plans and resource guides that are generally available, teachers do not adapt curriculum initiatives, instead they normally adapt the materials (Doyle and Ponder, 1977). This "ethic of practicality" (p. 35) becomes the major arbitrator of implementing curriculum. For the beginning teacher issues such as the instrumentability of the curriculum (the implementation guidelines and content),

the congruence of the curriculum content or innovation with the prevailing teaching and learning environment and the cost in time, energy and perceived success or failure in implementing the curriculum all directly affect the success of the beginning teacher as a curriculum developer. In summary, Doyle and Ponder state that "user reaction to curriculum proposals derives from the distinctive ecology of the classroom and the set of demands on teachers that arises from that ecological system" (p. 80). Given that beginning teachers are naive or at least in most cases innocent about both the overt and hidden ecological factors influencing the dynamics of the classroom, curriculum implementation responsibilities become a most demanding challenge. Hence, supervisors and experienced teachers, when working with beginning teachers, must ensure that their curriculum orientations do not encase nor neglect the beginning teacher's curriculum responsibilities. Not only must the beginning teacher reject, adapt, add, and reinterpret the curriculum that is available but also the supervisors must conduct themselves with the same phenomenological perspective when assisting the beginning teacher. It is the teacher's role to encourage students to share in creating the curriculum, to enhance their being-in-the-world, and to facilitate their becoming learning. "It is a lively and lifelong vocation" (Wolfson, 1977, p. 89). Therefore this philosophical orientation must reflect both the curriculum orientation and the supervision of beginning teachers.

The realities of curriculum practice by a beginning teacher are usually exemplified by the competence and implementation of instructional planning. To examine what planning and decision-making skills are essential to a new teacher's



repertoire Griffin (1983) reviewed the available research literature. His summation was that not only are the studies of teacher planning and decision-making characterized by differing conceptualizations and methodologies but also "there is no body of research knowledge robust enough to support the use of the ends-means paradigm or comprehensive enough to suggest context requirements" Griffin, 1983, p. 2). Hence, pre-service practicum experience and induction programming become crucial factors in the development of pro-active rather than reactive teachers. "If persons preparing to be teachers grow accustomed during student teaching to assuming that there is one way to go about instruction, evaluation, grouping, or classroom management, it is unlikely that they will be able to adjust to different classroom situations and social contexts" (Griffin, 1983, p. 10).

Research also indicates (Griffin and Hukill, 1983) that the impact of teacher planning and decision making upon the curriculum content is almost non-existent. It has become "abrogated by planning and decision making that takes place at some distance, temporally and ideologically, from the classrooms" (p. 10). Griffin suggests that during both the pre-service practicum and the initial years of teaching within the system the constraints of curriculum limit the beginning professional teacher's opportunities to become a planner or rational decision maker.

Everton, Emmer, Sandford, and Clements (1982) found that even a brief workshop and a simple training manual were more effective in developing plans for organizing elementary classrooms at the beginning of the school year than leaving this



important task of a teacher to chance.

Griffin (1983) also suggested in his discussion of the beginning teacher's role in curriculum planning and decision making that two key questions seem to permeate the relationships within the confluence of teacher education. They are: What can be done to demonstrate that the schools and the institutions that prepare teachers have similar values about instructional and curriculum activities; and how can substantive and procedural linkages be forged to make that demonstration possible? Hopefully the examination of the five countries' induction programmes in this study will illuminate these issues.

It would appear that the articulation of curriculum orientations among the stakeholders in teacher education becomes a crucial factor in generating a positive conceptual framework for beginning teachers. This articulation would ensure that beginning teachers learn their craft in curriculum planning and decision making skills. Furthermore, "if progressive teaching and educational ideas are to succeed in any permanent and effective way, then the young teachers must be able to intellectually argue the case for newer practices and ideas" (Maden, 1971, p. 38).

In conclusion, the sheer amount of time devoted to deliberate, professionally related learning by beginning teachers is remarkable. As Arends' (1983) study indicates "beginners do continue as learners" (p. 241). Hence, if each beginner's learning appears to be the product of individual decisions more than a mutual agreement with others it would appear that the primary responsibility of learning is on the individual. "The challenge, perhaps is finding the type of policies that

offer rewards and aid for the docile learner without destroying the pattern of those beginners who already on their own attend to their learning needs" (p. 242).

### Summary

This chapter examined the socialization and instructional experiences and issues that beginning teachers encounter during their induction year. Socialization issues were examined in the literature as it applied to both personal and professional perspectives. Not only was the tenure status, self concept, motivational and interpersonal factors discussed but also the ecological context of the pupils, staff, administrators, supervisors and the school setting itself were analyzed. The induction year is described as an evolutionary experience with the interactive style of the beginning teacher noticeably changing during the first months in the classroom. The rituals of the socialization process are described as difficult but often inevitable. However, the positive socialization experiences of the beginning teacher may result when collegial and judicious support is afforded by experienced teachers and supervisors.

Instructional challenges that the beginning teacher may overcome, or succumb to, during the induction year are not necessarily directly related to the quality of the pre-service experience. The "language of practice" is incrementally learned through developmental stages of experiential growth. Behaviour change that is deemed fundamental to professional growth is reflected in self-evaluative practice and the supportive interface with experienced colleagues and supervisors. Although key instructional components comprise the taxo-

onomy of instructional competency during the first year it is evident from the literature that teacher efficacy is achieved by individual and contextual learning experiences. Curriculum and instructional planning and implementation are examples of this individualized set of factors. Constraints of the planning and decision making process usually cause most stress and instructional difficulty for the neophyte teacher.

Confluence of teacher education activities and experiences enriched with knowledgeable and supportive experienced teachers will ameliorate many of the problems facing beginning teachers during the transitory experiences of their first years of teaching. As Michael Polanyi suggests,

"For if we agree with that which the other person claims to know and with the grounds on which he relies for his knowledge, the critical examination of this knowledge will become a critical reflection of our own knowledge."

From Personal Knowledge (1958, p. 373)



## Chapter 5

### INDUCTION PROGRAMMES

This chapter will focus on induction programmes: the context, the process, the academic parameters, and the implications induction has upon confluence in teacher education. Issues such as the variation of programme orientation and programme design within induction programmes will also be examined.

#### The Context

During the late sixties a major consortium of teacher education agencies in the U.S. collaborated to design a systems model from which teacher education programmes could be constructed. Joyce, Howey, Yarger, Harbeck and Kluwin (1977) contends that this "product of the U.S. Office of Education study represents a first generation effort to make an application of broad systems planning principles to a major area in education" (p. 205). Since that time the systems model design has had a major influence on teacher education programmes in the U.S. and Canada and to some extent in Australia, New Zealand and Britain as well. In summary the six recommendations that have been the basis for this systematic programme are:

- i) the development of a performance model,
- ii) the analysis of the performance model into sets,
- iii) the specification of training subsystems  
(component strategies),

- iv) the development of the management system to monitor a large programme,
- v) the reconciliation of the programme and product with the client and the field,
- vi) the development of the overall training system with interlocking relationships among all components of teacher education.

Complementing this orientation to teacher education is another initiative that hopes to influence the establishment of beginning teacher programmes. This overall movement is mandatory continuing education (MCE), (Cross, 1983). It should be appreciated that MCE is not a recent phenomena since it has been prevalent in other professions for many years. For example, law, medicine, accounting and the military ensure that knowledge and skill acquisition continue as ongoing expectations within their respective professions. However, recent educational trends that include cost effectiveness audits, performance contracting, community participation/control, and competency testing have made educators equally accountable to the government and the public as the other professions. Hence the MCE movement coupled with the systems model approach to teacher education programming have created an interesting context for induction programmes to emerge.

An example of this coupling of educational initiatives is found in the state of Oregon. Here the Oregon education system under the leadership of the Oregon Teachers Standards and Practices Commission are involved in initial, induction and in-service certification programmes. These programmes aim to ensure that demonstrated proficiencies in basic skill use are prevalent among teachers in all phases of their career. Fur-

thermore, interinstitutional initiatives by all education agencies in Oregon link continued professional development of their teachers with the overall school improvement programme of their goal based model of schooling (Schalock and Egge, 1985).

It would appear that induction as with continuing education are receiving support due to the new political and social values that place the profession more accountable to education's changing educational methods and personnel requirements (Rubin, 1985). However, it appears that the demands the hiring authorities place upon teachers to be accountable to the needs of schools and students must also be balanced with the recognition that teachers should be afforded the right to plan and shape their careers, in essence to develop their own professional priorities. To clarify this perspective a discussion of the induction process and its academic parameters will follow.

### The Process

The induction phase in teacher education has been described as "problematic" (Griffin, 1985), "the beginning teacher's paradox" (Corcoran, 1981), "trial by fire" (Zeichner, 1983), "the joys and pains of giving birth" (Zumwalt, 1984), "the bridge" (Evans, 1978), and the period of "fixedness" (Lasley, 1985). Regardless of the inference that may be generated by each label the importance of induction underlies all perspectives. Griffin (1983) has defined induction as the time it takes for a beginning teacher to make the transition from student of teaching to teacher (p. 7). Nevertheless the complexity of the beginning teacher's experiences (Veenman, 1984) generates many interpretations on how induc-



tion programmes may be perceived and developed.

Ryan (1980) suggests that the first year of professional work is for the teacher the ultimate teachable moment. Ryan may be correct. Certainly, the present knowledge base does appear to support that certain induction practices within staff development programmes would be appropriate for beginning teachers (Johnston and Ryan, 1980) beyond a comprehensive pre-service practica. As early as 1968 an NASSP research project (Hunt, 1968) identified four factors that are crucial to successful induction programming. These included provision of supportive assistance to beginning teachers in locating and using instructional materials; a reduced teaching load for the beginning teacher; a reduced teaching load for the beginning teacher's mentor; and the provision of orientation information concerning regulations, pupil profiles and professional services.

McDonald and Elias (1980) indicate that beginning teachers do survive the induction phase of their career by solving the problems very much by themselves. However, many teacher educators do not believe that survival is an appropriate professional circumstance when effective induction practices such as mentoring (Gray and Gray, 1985), development supervision (Glickman, 1981) and self-directing contracting (Challenge Education Associates, 1980) are available.

Nevertheless, educators such as Ryan (1970), Bush (1980), and McDonald and Elias (1980) have indicated that induction programming must be studied so as to ensure that the appropriate conceptual framework for induction may be developed hence benefitting both beginning teachers and the school

system. Five specific characteristics seem to predominate the American literature regarding this conceptual framework of induction (Lewis, 1980). Similarities to the 1968 NASSP study may be seen. These characteristics include reduced workload and released time for the beginning teacher, professional exchange and discussion with other beginning teachers, more opportunities to observe other teachers and to work regularly with an experienced teacher in a non-evaluative context.

The use of other initiation rights or ceremonial beginnings could easily be applied to induction. A lawyer's articling, a doctor's internship, and a pilot's solo flying phase are some examples. However, Zumwalt's (1984) comparison of induction with motherhood suggests that although both experiences may be painful the joys can be most rewarding. Nevertheless, the similarities indicate that induction like mothering provides an inclusive experience that must incorporate intuition, problem solving, critical reflection and dynamic initiatives for the beginning teacher. Furthermore the teacher's basic knowledge, skills and understandings of curriculum are important. However, these "similarities between beginning teaching and beginning mothering accentuate the value of a deliberative rather than a technological orientation toward teaching" (Zumwalt, op. cit., p. 149). Zumwalt also states that continuous professional development must become the underlying framework of induction programmes, thus ensuring the importance of providing teachers with the same impetus toward growth forced on mothers by the changing child.

Academic Parameters

In designing the structure or organizational framework of for induction programmes conflicting ideologies of curriculum must be recognized. Lawton (1973) suggests that curriculum may be identified into the classical orientation or the romantic orientation (Figure 2). Applying these orientations to the

Figure 2

Lawton's Curriculum Framework

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<u>Classical</u>	<u>Romantic</u>
subject centered	teacher centered
skills	creativity
instruction	experience
information	discovery
compliance	awareness
conformity	originality
discipline	freedom

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curriculum of an induction programme a juxtaposition of attitudes and characteristics is adapted from Lawton's analysis Both orientations generate a clearly defined perspective indicating that the mentor's activities, the format of supervisory practice, the type of assessment procedure, and the independence of the beginning teacher's instructional planning would be quite different.

Given the socializing and experiential realities of the beginning teacher's life in the classroom one may argue that the romantic orientation is the only base from which to develop an induction curriculum. However, it is the classic



perspective, the systems model with a competence-based orientation, that is promoted as the preferred programme among educational jurisdictions, particularly in the U.S. (NCEE, 1983).

Acquired ownership of the learning process by the beginning teacher becomes the fulcrum of the issue. The romantic orientation suggests that the individual must retain the expression, style and diversity of his professionalism while interacting with the standards and structure of the institutionalized induction process. Renshaw (1975) believes that the beginning teacher must be sensitive, self-confident, self-critical and an adaptable person. Furthermore, these individuals can potentially work as the link by interconnecting pre-service and in-service programming and pursuing professional development activities during their induction year. In fact not only would beginning teachers enjoy improved teacher education programming practices but a cohesive knowledge-based profession would establish evidence of confluence among the three stages of teacher education. The question however is what knowledge base may be rationally determined that would enhance this continuum of professional development among teachers. Will this syllabus reflect a factual and empirical competency-based structure characterizing a classical framework, or as Lawton (1973), Eisner (1979), and Aoki (1984) propose, a more romantic framework that encourages process oriented skills and knowledge, exemplified by critical reflection, self-direction and decision making activities?

In considering this issue, the National Education Association (N.E.A.) in the U.S. has stated that given "teaching is a complex and lifelong enterprise . . . initial and con-

tinuing education must become a seamless gown" (Robinson, 1981, p. 11). Moreover, learning to teach has no terminal point teacher preparation whether pre-service or induction "should be designed to build individuals to the point where they become largely autonomous in their ability to manage the multiple roles required for enduring success" (Robinson, p. 2). Nevertheless, the N.E.A. believes that a knowledge base of professionalism may be achieved by judiciously incorporating a sequential programme of study within the organizational framework of teacher education thus attending to the individuality of the teacher. For example these components would:

- i) Determine classroom instructional objectives for various curricular areas of study and application.
- ii) Adopt/develop models, methods, and procedures for instruction that reflect various instructional contexts.
- iii) Select instructional materials that encourage developmental and individual mastery among pupils rather than uniform teaching practice.
- iv) Diagnose teacher needs and evaluate the learning progress of enrichment and remediation rather than prescribed impersonal centralized programme objectives.
- v) Enhance the teaching and learning environment so as to ensure the teacher may be free to explore various curricular and instructional practices.
- vi) Use specialized support services that formatively invest time in teachers rather than dictate restricted assessment measures.

- vii) Determine continuing education needs that would reflect both individual and staff development programme endeavours.

Therefore as referred to earlier, general education, the study of social sciences, should incorporate teaching content specialization and professional education if a continuous knowledge base is to prevail. Furthermore, if continuing educational experiences, particularly in induction programming, build upon these components it will ensure that post certification programming would reflect the teachers' perceived needs as well as being integral to their professional assignment throughout their career. At present some attempt has been made to improve teacher education by developing a more coherent conception of in-service education as well as redefining the orientation of pre-service preparation. Hopefully the induction process will "redefine potential relationships between pre-service and in-service programmes, a goal that has never been accomplished" (Yarger, Howey, and Joyce, 1978, p. 45) in the past.

### Support System

Results of a survey of seventy-two beginning teachers by Grant and Zeichner (1981) identified three types of support that could be categorized within induction programmes. Formal support is the first category and it may be identified with three phases of the induction year: i) pre-assignment contacts; ii) orientation activities; and iii) formal support during the year. Job embedded support that was part of a planned induction programme is the second category; and informal means of induction support is the third. Using



Zeichner's framework and borrowing research documentation from Tisher, Fyfield, and Taylor (1978) and Bernbaum, Patrick, and Reid (1982) Figure 3 (p. 96) summarises the induction activities that could be available to beginning teachers if a comprehensive induction programme was provided.

Upon review of these research studies it was evident that various findings on inductive practices were mutually supportive. For instance, printed materials were considered invaluable by beginning teachers and were in turn the only major form of induction support that was provided by the schools and school district. However, disconcerting for all researchers was that only fifty percent or less of the beginning teachers experienced formal orientation events and overall less than twenty percent were able to visit other schools. In general all three studies indicated that unless formal induction programmes had been instituted within the school and district, little programming of substantial support was offered beginning teachers. The Bernbaum study indicated that beginning teachers generally preferred courses and workshop activities similar in content and focus as pre-service programming. However, all studies indicated that beginning teachers were open to receiving more personalized assistance particularly if this was class or school-based, even more so than class released time. Finally, all studies showed that problems and professional needs of beginning teachers were generally dissimilar and diverse even though the categories for assistance were similar. Consequently Grant and Zeichner (1981) recommended that induction programmes should foster a personalized and uniquely individual professional development programme for beginning teachers. However, this recommendation not only

Figure 3  
Induction Programme Activities

<u>Support System Classification</u>	<u>Induction Stage</u>	<u>Induction Activity</u>	<u>Support Personnel</u>
	Pre-Assignment Contact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- meeting school and district personnel</li> <li>- observation in classrooms</li> <li>- teacher/resource centre</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- building administrators</li> <li>- school personnel</li> <li>- community representatives</li> <li>- teacher association</li> <li>- experienced teachers</li> <li>- support personnel</li> </ul>
<u>Formal Support</u>	Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to school</li> <li>- to community</li> <li>- to school district</li> <li>- to printed materials</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- principal and staff</li> <li>- principal &amp; parents</li> <li>- school district personnel</li> <li>- teachers, principal school district personnel</li> </ul>
	During School Year "all four activities might include programmes containing:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- school based activities</li> <li>- school district programming</li> <li>- generic instructional skills</li> <li>- curriculum emphasis</li> <li>- foundations</li> <li>- professional matters</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- teachers, principal supervisor</li> <li>- supervisor</li> <li>- peer exchange</li> <li>- university, instructors</li> <li>- school district personnel</li> <li>- supervisors and resource personnel</li> </ul>
<u>Job Embedded Support</u>	During School Year	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- released time</li> <li>- smaller class size</li> <li>- minimal extra curricular</li> <li>- minimal non-instructional tasks</li> <li>- mentor assigned</li> <li>- visiting other schools</li> <li>- supervision by consultants</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- principal</li> <li>- experienced teacher</li> <li>- other teachers</li> <li>- district supervisor</li> </ul>
<u>Informal Support</u>	Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- meeting with staff</li> <li>- acquiring resources and materials</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- principal and staff</li> </ul>
	During School Year	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- visiting other teachers</li> <li>- visiting other schools</li> <li>- readings, journals</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- experienced and first year teachers</li> <li>- principal, librarian supervisor</li> </ul>

becomes an organisational challenge to formalize such individually based opportunities for beginning teachers, but also "how these needs are identified and who identifies them is crucial" (Grant and Zeichner, p. 110). Certainly induction practices by all researchers advocate that beginning teachers must have a role to play in developing and self-evaluating their own programming activities and instructional progress respectively. The major question therefore is what type of support system would need to be developed to reflect this perspective.

Although pre-service programmes must necessarily ensure all their graduates develop generic and curriculum strengths it is only evidenced by the capacity of beginning teachers to apply this knowledge and skill during their induction year that offers a potential validation of their pre-service experience. Hence Denemark and Nutter (1980) posit it is the major function of the induction year to assist the beginning teacher in using such generic and curriculum competencies while evaluating the candidate's ability to apply them effectively. Furthermore they believe that it is important for local education agencies, institutions of higher learning and state or provincial education commissions to collaborate so as to ensure that the beginning teachers receive systematic support. Various educational jurisdictions also have stated that expensive induction programmes may be ideal but not economically feasible. Instead, funding could facilitate released time for beginning teachers that would enable consultation with experienced teachers, visitations and in-service work at teacher centres, and observation time in classrooms of master teachers (Denemark and Nutter, 1980).



In summary the potential support systems that may be afforded beginning teachers may be quite comprehensive. However, activities by teacher education institutions to implement such programmes do require collaboration by all the stakeholders involved in teacher education as well as their commitment to systematic support within an academic, organisational and governance framework.

### Programme Variations

A unique form of induction programming has been proposed by the American Federation of Teachers (A.F.T.) based on successful experiences in the Universities of Northern Colorado, Kentucky, Wisconsin and Oregon State (Schalock, 1985). The A.F.T. suggests that support be provided for pre-service institutions so as to permit continuing supervision and consultation with beginning teachers such as similarly federal funded programmes with vocational training institutions. This programme has been perceived as a pledge by teacher education institutions to "warranty" their graduates. At Oregon State, as well as Western Oregon State College, this warranty programme is a component of a new Quality Assurance Program (Barr, 1984). "Should the graduates of a teacher education programme fail to perform satisfactorily as beginning teachers the institution that trained them promises to provide direct assistance and support to both the employing schools and the new teachers" (p. 128).

At Wisconsin the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse offers an interesting form of "warranty" programme. Basically the university is involved with a consortium of sixteen teacher preparation programmes known as the Wisconsin Improvement

Program. Essentially this is an entry year assistance programme that contains five components. Included in this programme are i) surveys of beginning teacher needs three times per year; ii) supervision and observation by retired university supervisors; iii) seminars for beginning teachers based on items i) and ii); iv) toll free help line to the university professors; and v) "a team support system including an experienced teacher as mentor, the principal, the university consultant and the beginning teacher". (Burke and Schmidt, 1984, p. 72). Meanwhile at the University of Kentucky a follow up programme for beginning teachers in special education is realized through "S.O.S." audio cassette tapes. Each graduate of the university upon acquiring a teaching position is sent a blank audio cassette tape with the following instructions: "This is an S.O.S. tape. I'll tape an answer and send it back to you." Responses received usually are practical and problem specific but the clarification or instructional support provided does offer a practical answer within a theoretical framework (Morsink, Blackhurst, and Williams, 1979).

In Colorado two other unique initiatives are being developed by the College of Education at the University of Northern Colorado in promoting the confluence of pre-service and in-service activities. The first option offers all school districts and educational-related agencies the opportunity to refer graduates of Northern Colorado's College of Education to the College for further programme instruction during the teacher's first and second year of employment. The teacher's programme would be professionally organised in collaboration with the employer, the College of Education and the teacher.

This remedial programme, provided at the expense of the university, might include coursework, workshop participation, in-service training programmes, individualized consultations, internships, or independent study. A written evaluation report is provided on the progress of the beginning teacher at the end of the programme. This "Quality Assurance Partnership" is only a referral for those beginning teachers who are experiencing weakness.

The second option is a series of "internship" opportunities provided by the College for their teacher graduates who are engaged in their third, fourth or fifth year of teaching. Five professional themes comprise the various internship programmes. These include: professional proficiency and growth; curriculum development; production and design; leadership and management; agency, business and industry relations; and interpersonal skills and career development. This "Professional Renewal Program" is aimed at assisting the needs of the graduates, especially those seeking advancement. The programme matches professors and teachers through utilising exchanges, cooperative planning, team teaching and instructional development experimentation. All programmes are the equivalent of a three credit hour course and the university covers the expense of the course.

Both programmes are aimed to improve the quality of continuing education opportunities for their graduates and to acquire the confidence of both school district employers and the public in the graduates of the university's teacher education programme.

Whether one considers in-service education as primarily a remedial programme of school district or school focused pro-



gramming and views continuing education as scholarly enhancement of professional interests, the conceptual orientation of induction programmes must clarify the underlying intention of instructional or curriculum programming. Furthermore, the intention of university-based programmes for beginning teachers must identify whether credit course work can meet specific instructional or curriculum in-service needs as compared to the broader based career development options of scholarly research in graduate studies or curriculum specific programme development that is offered through an extended studies programme.

In closing, the variations of induction practices indicate that universities and school districts may collaborate in various ways to establish induction programming that will aid the beginning teacher's transition into their professional responsibilities. Furthermore, induction programmes may also assume a warranty approach that ensures unconditional support for the beginning teacher while providing resource and consultative support throughout their first years in the profession.

#### Implication of Confluence

Rubin (1978), Bush (1983), and Andrews (1985a) among others have proposed that induction programming can only benefit the principles of continuous professional development, and in turn benefit the beginning teacher, if there is confluence among the stakeholders in teacher education. Not only do the stakeholders include the institutions such as the universities, the school districts, the state or national ministries, but also the stakeholders include various teacher education personnel such as licensing officials, university professors,

mentors, principals, induction coordinators, and curriculum consultants. For example to promote confluence in teacher education Rubin (1978) suggests that "supervisors who work with prospective teachers in pre-service training institutions should perhaps continue their training relationship after the teacher enters service, or, those who supervise teacher in-service should perhaps establish a training relationship in the pre-service period" (p. 302). Moreover all teachers, regardless of their stage of professional development, can equally address a complementary syllabus that has them aim for "flexibility in teaching style, capacity for self-renewal, and desire to perform skillfully" (p. 298).

Bush (1983) also supports this overall interconnection between pre-service and in-service but emphasizes that collaboration among the various teacher education institutions in promoting induction programmes would address four important issues: "time, practice, interrelationship of various parts of the system and inquiry (research and development) about the system" (p. 8). Time essentially refers to the continuous development perspective that teachers should be able to improve, to enrich or to explore their professional craft throughout all stages of professional development. Not only does this necessitate a sequential, yet flexible, professional syllabus to be interrelated among the university certification and school district agencies but also, as corroborated by Howey (1985), all stakeholders should recognize that individual teachers will require self directed, personalized and school based opportunities for professional development.

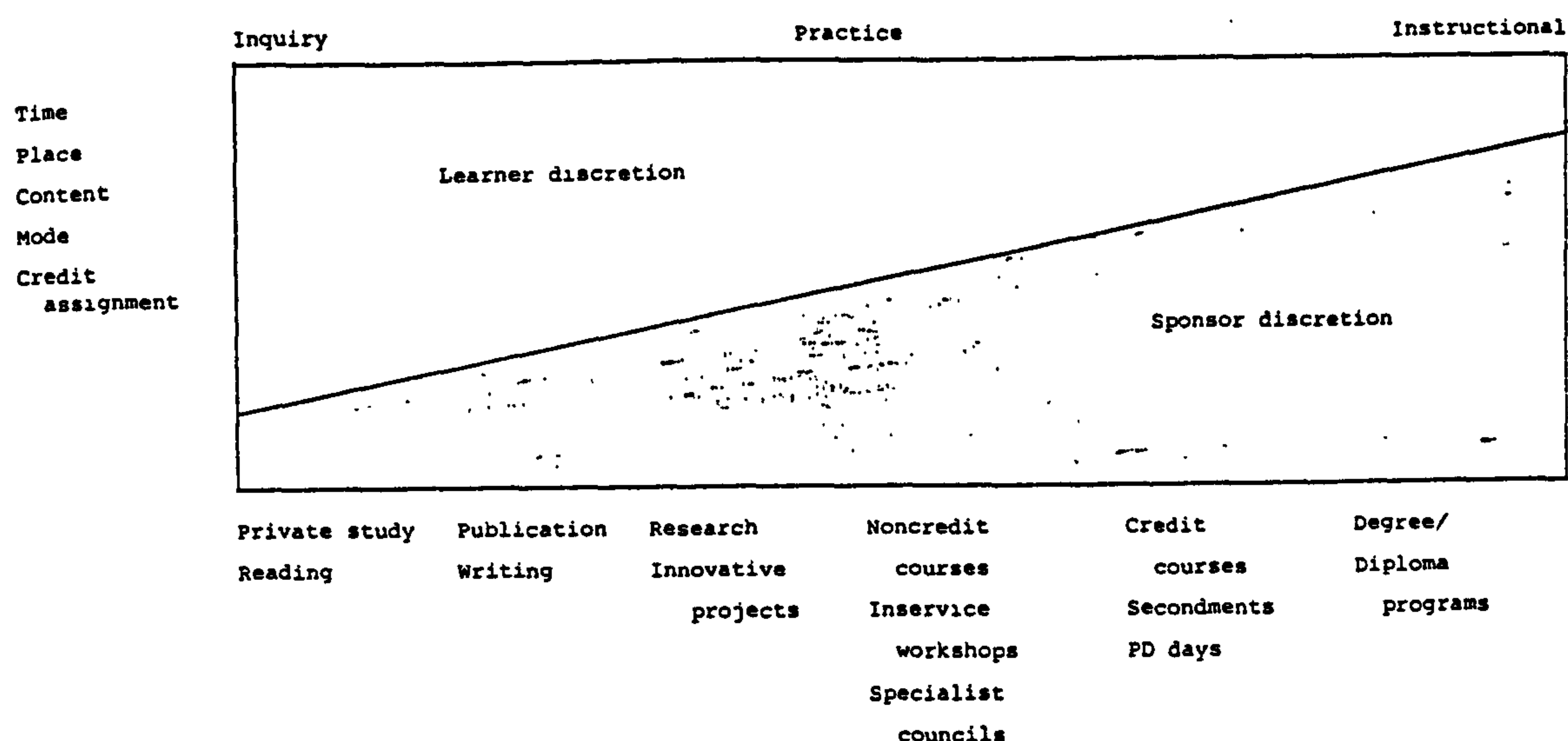
Practice in Bush's view must be inherent through all

stages of induction. "Most important is the need for practice to take place under relatively safe conditions, where mistakes and weaknesses are expected and shared, so that these conditions can become rooted in normal expectations for a lifelong period" (p. 10). Collaborative teacher education agencies would then have to recognize that teacher assessment procedures would be more formative and self-evaluative. Furthermore, the acquisition by beginning teachers of skills, knowledge and attitudes through a developmental process rather than a predetermined and sometimes premature summative test would then become the professional development framework for teacher education agencies.

Acquisition of these two elements within teacher education would enhance the third element namely the interrelationship of various parts of the system. Bush perceives an integration of services within training programmes to address complementary needs, i.e., supervisors for pre-service and in-service, curriculum innovations for both novice and experienced teachers. Houle (1980) provided a conceptual framework that structures this third element of interrelationship within the system. Essentially this framework contains a continuum of learning modes that include an inquiry level, practice level and instructional level (Figure 4, p. 104). Included in this model is the perspective that both the learner (teacher) and the sponsor (teacher education agencies) have proportional discretion in delivering professional development programmes. In analysing this system Small and Buski (1983) believe that this model provides the basis for addressing individual teacher needs while highlighting funding and programme priorities. Moreover the interrelationship and interdependency of the



Figure 4  
Houle's Continuum of Learning Modes



various agencies allows "continuing professional education <to> be viewed as diverse and persuasive, with each organisation contributing what it does best" (p. 6). Naturally if induction programming was to be incorporated within this model, then linkages between pre-service and in-service programme agencies would benefit the beginning teacher. Dialogue between the theorists (university) and the practitioners (classroom teachers) would also manifest more productively.

This dialogue reflects the fourth element of Bush's proposal for developing induction programming, namely educational inquiry. As Houle (1980) demonstrates in his conceptual continuum of learning modes, induction programmes can provide a pivotal opportunity for greater exploration of the inquiry, practice and instructional experiences by the beginning teacher. Professional development growth that is facilitated by continuous in-service programming requires a viable and adaptable conceptual framework as its spiritual base. Howey (1985) suggests five components must be reflected in induction

and in-service articulation if confluence of programming is to succeed. These components are: i) self discovery and self directed programme opportunities; ii) programmes that personalize the learning focus; iii) collaborative programming among school districts, universities and professional organisations; iv) programme options that are school focused; and v) advanced professional study that may lead to career or academic enhancement. Underlying these components are both pedagogical and conceptual perspectives that provide pluristic opportunities for study and enquiry. By falling within this framework induction programmes would not only enhance improved instruction and curriculum study but also improve the development of grounded theories. Hence "teachers become more aware of changes in themselves and the relationship of these changes to their life's work of teaching" (Howey, p. 62).

Furthermore "the roles of practitioner, researcher, and policy maker are beginning to merge as the educational research and development process matures" (Bush, 1983, p. 13). With the movement toward more school based action research (Hopkins, 1982; Andrews, 1983; Egbert, 1985; Griffin, 1985) greater numbers of teachers are becoming actively involved in classroom based research projects. "The practice of engaging in systematic inquiry is, almost by definition questioning and reflecting" (Griffin, p. 39). Opportunities for collaborative research to include pre-service and beginning teachers will promote professionalism among the beginning professionals as well as expand the agenda of research further into the domain of the induction process. Examples of these research and development agendas are reported in Veenman's (1984) study of the beginning teacher.

This reform of teacher education programmes not only implies that the curriculum content of pre-service, induction and in-service would be more oriented to curriculum based research but also this "reform should be accompanied by a reward structure that encourages participation in the reform and real engagement in teacher education" (Guyton, 1984, p. 12). Faculty members at universities and colleges should be honoured and rewarded within their tenure review for engaging in practicum supervision and teacher education curriculum development. Also principals and teachers in the field should be supported and rewarded either financially or with academic credit or tuition fee compensation for working with pre-service or beginning teachers. "Without this reward structure, it is difficult to envision any real and lasting effects of curriculum reform, since faculty dedication and intrinsic awards have their limits as motivators for excellence" (Guyton, 1984, p. 12).

Zeichner (1983a) meanwhile is uncertain that induction programmes will necessarily improve professional development practices among teachers unless other conditions within the profession improve simultaneously. For instance, "systematic efforts to reform the structure of teaching and workplace characteristics" (p. 26) as well as utilising teacher effectiveness research must be realized concurrently during the implementation of induction programmes. Neglect of these factors will frustrate and possibly undermine the adoption of beginning teacher programming. Furthermore, the lack of teacher autonomy in establishing their own criteria for curriculum development, pupil assessment, and professional



development practices does not inherently promulgate self directing and self fulfilling beginning teachers. As Zeichner suggests "if by bothering with the teacher induction we mean merely helping teachers fit more smoothly into the system of schooling that remains unaltered, then we are adopting a truncated view of the problem" (1983, p. 32).

Yarger (1982) indicates that there are several hurdles that teacher education agencies must overcome if induction programmes are to flourish. Lack of institutional responsibility for establishing the programmes, lack of financial support, and deferring training programmes to competency testing are regarded as major impediments. Unfortunately, relatively little research has been done on the effects of beginning teacher programmes. However, "the evaluation data that does exist does little to illuminate the superiority of any one provision over another, or the nature of the impact of specific induction on the development of teachers or pupil achievement" (Veenman, 1984, p. 165).

Certainly induction programming implies conscious effort by the teacher education agencies to afford professional development experiences for the beginning teacher. It is not a probationary year of evaluation nor is it an additional year of pre-service programming that would exclude beginning teachers from assuming full responsibility of their pupils' learning. The significance of induction as a stage in the confluence of teacher education is that it is a bridge, a linkage, both conceptually and programmatically with pre-service and continuous in-service programmes. The James Report stated that induction programmes should be professional initiation, guided experience, and further study rather than a

narrowly defined set of competencies that does not respect the professional individuality of the teacher nor the particular ethos of the beginning teacher's classroom. Moreover, as Evans (1978) posits "what any discussion of induction reveals is that the close relationship between theory and practice, which is so urgently required, cannot be achieved unless there is a professional partnership with teachers in schools and teachers in colleges working to an agreed programme" (p. 101).

### Summary

To recapitulate, this chapter has identified that the context and process of induction as well as its academic parameters, including content and programme design, have important implications if induction programmes are to realize the linkage role they may play in the confluence of education. Furthermore it has been discussed that the confluence of teacher education requires three interrelationships: i) the linkage of pre-service, induction and in-service; ii) the partnership of all education agencies; iii) the balance of theoretical and practical studies within pedagogical and foundational studies. It would appear that the change agent players in this scenario become the teacher educators. In turn their choice of programme orientation becomes instrumental. However, as John Dewey (1938) states

"the crucial educational problem is that of procuring the postponement of immediate action upon desire until observation and judgement have intervened" (p. 68).

### Introduction to Section 3:

#### METHODOLOGY

Social science must include not merely the study of past change, trends and cycles, and the causes of change but also possibilities for the future.

Bell (1974, p. 81)

This section identifies the methodological procedures used to analyse the induction programmes in five countries: Britain, Australia, New Zealand, the United States and Canada. Qualitative research methodology provided the basic orientation for this comparative study. Naturalistic inquiry techniques, specifically a case and field study research design, were relied upon to examine the induction programmes in each country. Two theoretical frameworks are utilized in this comparative study. Conrad's (1978) theoretical framework for curriculum planning in post-secondary education is used to analyse the academic orientation of the induction programmes. Berman's (1981) three stage process of educational change is used as the theoretical framework to analyse the organisational components and implementation process of the induction programmes.

Other analytical factors used in this comparative study are based on the principles of governance as posited by Cushman (1977). Fullan's (1982) adoption factors of implementation also provided a frame of reference for examining the organisational components of the study.



## Chapter 6

## DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

Delineation of the methodologies used in educational research helps to interrelate the underlying research problem with the appropriate processes of collecting and analysing the data. Specifically the conduct of inquiry in this study relies upon a naturalistic inquiry approach while using the case and field study research methodology as outlined in the literature (Isaac and Michael, 1971; Cohen and Manion, 1980; Patton, 1980). In addition various analytical models are incorporated into the study enabling a more succinct comparison and interpretation of the data. Therefore this chapter describes the methods used in this study while detailing the structure and functions of the analytical models. The first section of this chapter will briefly outline the research orientation of the study.

Research Orientation

Given that the establishment of formalized induction programmes in education has been recent, research in this area is minimal. As Griffin (1985) suggests, we can increase our knowledge about induction "with a greater certainty of success if we ask effective research questions and use an appropriate blend of qualitative and quantitative research methods to answer these questions" (p. 42). Hence a basic consideration of this thesis was to use a model of inquiry that would investigate and analyse induction programmes irrespective of their educational, social or political context or the specific time of their implementation. Furthermore it was important to

acquire research information that would contribute to the illumination of both normative and evaluative data as well as "obtain the knowledge to make wise educational decisions" (Lehmann and Mehren, 1971, p. 2) when establishing induction programmes.

The qualitative methodological paradigm that has been selected for this study uses a naturalistic research approach. Qualitative research perspectives such as naturalistic inquiry have become validated and promoted throughout the research literature, e.g., Apple (1978), Eisner (1979), Patton (1980), Miles and Huberman (1984). This particular form of inquiry is concerned with describing and understanding social, theoretical or organisational phenomena within and relative to their naturally occurring contexts. "Thus the reality of a given educational setting may be seen, not as a fixed and stable entity but as a type of variable that might be discerned only through an analysis of these multiple forms of understanding" (Andrews, E. M., 1983, p. 38). Furthermore, as Guba (1978) describes, when defining the methodological perspective of the researcher, "the naturalistic inquirer tends to be open-minded, exploratory and complex in his position" (p. 14). Hence, the acquisition of data from a variety of information sources broadens the scope of the study. In addition this form of research illustrates interrelationships among those phenomena thereby illuminating a pluralistic value structure rather than a single restrictive position.

Complementing this orientation of naturalistic inquiry is the use of ethnographic or investigative journalism. This study adopted this research technique, i.e., investigative reporting, in-depth interviews, flexible checklist of ques-

tions, participant and non-participant observation, so as to "shed light on what is unique in time and space while at the same time conveying insights that exceed the limits of the situation in which they emerge" (Eisner, 1981, p. 7). This form of research recognized the differing cultural and educational contexts for each country's involvement with induction. Moreover, the unique time frame of each induction programme's operation also necessitated this form of qualitative methodology. Bryk (1978) supports this research perspective suggesting that it is important to pursue personal interaction and on-site observations where possible because it allows the researcher to link the individual programme effects, that are emerging over a period of time, with the characteristics of the immediate context of events.

To enhance this collection of data a triangulation research technique also has been used to acquire information on the five countries' induction programmes. Based upon by Denzin's (1978) and Cohen and Manion's (1980) description of triangulation the documentation for this thesis has been acquired through three data collection methods: i) archives, fugitive documents and policy guidelines; ii) interviews, correspondence and observation based on personal investigation and visitations; and iii) evaluation reports and research studies representing the literature that has been previously documented from other researcher's perspectives. Each category of information converges to triangulate the interrelationships of the research documentation. In summary, the ethnographic descriptions and the investigative reporting of the induction programmes provided an invaluable contribution to the acquisi-



tion of research information used in the study.

This methodological argument for making judgements and a valid analysis on the relativeness and subjectivity of interpretation may be categorized in the context of three principles. The first principle posited by McCutcheon (1978) suggests that evidence is usually cited from several converging sources. "Vallance (1978) defines this convergence as 'structural corroboration' where the structure of evidence and observation clearly supports the interpretation or conclusion offered" (Andrews, E. M., 1983). Another principle of validation (McCutcheon, 1978) is that the evaluation of the research findings should make an important contribution to the understanding of the events and processes within the entity or programmatic context that is being studied. Gray (1981) posits that the third principle for validity may be defined as referential adequacy. Here the interpretation and analysis must provide an accurate description of the unit of study. Therefore within this research study the acquisition and presentation of the induction programme data from the five different countries has aimed to adhere to these qualitative research principles. In fact the multiple facets of the induction process will be presented as a foundation for speculation, for inference as well as for historical retrospection. Hence it may be stated that validation of the qualitative data in this study is not to define truth as an absolute entity but rather to provide a perspective on reality (Patton, 1980).

For the foregoing reasons the decision to use a qualitative research paradigm rather than a quantitative approach was not to discount the attributes of the quantitative methodology but rather to maximize the acquisition of data through the

case and field model using qualitative research procedures. Moreover the qualitative paradigm subscribes to an inductive, holistic and subjective orientation as the research perspective. Further, the very evolutionary nature of each country's induction programme emphasizes the need to use a qualitative research methodological format.

In summary, the case and field study research methodology provides an in-depth investigation of various social units—the induction programmes—resulting in a summative organised overview of that social phenomena. The interrelationships of the varying programme elements, procedures, participants and conditions enhance the understanding of the programme under investigation (Issac and Michael, 1971). However, complementing this methodological approach is the construction of an analytical framework. As Bell (1974) suggests, research contributes to the clarification of values and goals as well as to the description of trends. Furthermore research may include projections of alternative futures as well as explanations of existing routines of interdependencies. As Deutsch (1966) suggests, an examination of the perspectives requires an analytical framework from which to illustrate these potential benefits. Therefore in the following section the analytical frameworks that have been developed for examining the induction programmes presented in this thesis will be discussed.

#### The Use of Analytical and Descriptive Models

Analytical models or descriptive profiles are regularly used by social scientists to examine and illuminate more clearly the set of constraints of variations that characterize the concepts to be examined. These analytical models may be



thought as serving three distinct functions: the organisational, the heuristic, and the predictive (Deutsch, 1966). The organizing functions is "the ability of a model to order and relate disjointed data, and to show similarities or connections between those that had remained unperceived" (p. 8). The heuristic function illustrates the discovery of new ideas and concepts; while the predictive function is in essence the qualitative and quantitative projections that complement the acquisition of data within the analytical characteristics of any effectively developed model.

Examples of various models in educational studies verify the adaptiveness and value of Deutsch's classification. For instance Joyce and Weil's (1972) models of teaching framework typify the analytical function of the organisation by presenting a diverse set of instructional strategies and curriculum designs in the form of a pedagogical anthology. Each model is portrayed by examining various conceptual elements applicable to all the models presented. Another multi-level organisational model is Beer's (1975) paradigm for handling the various complexities of societal change. Organisation, science, language, institutionalization, endemony - an alternative for the monetary metric, information systems, government, and cultural ethics that represent the key elements of this "total system".

An example of an heuristic function for formulating conceptual elements is Moos' (1979) analytical model for examining educational environments. Here an integrative conceptual framework is presented emphasizing a social-ecological perspective. The interrelationships of both the environmental and



personal systems within the educational setting are analysed through cognitive appraisal, motivation, adaptation, the change quotient of the participants and system maintenance and change.

Finally, a predictive model is exemplified by McDaniel's (1974) work. He analyses the spectrum of change as it applies to the sociocultural and educational elements in society. This model allows the researcher to examine and compare different societies in the context of seven change factors i) demographic, ii) technological innovation, iii) social innovation, iv) cultural value shifts, v) ecological shifts, vi) information - idea shifts and vii) cultural diffusion. To propose a supposition for each factor would illustrate a heuristic focus. However, when the model includes postulations or specific hypotheses about the relationship of each factor to itself and to the others a predictive model is manifested (p. 118). For example Rubin's (1978) postulations on the continuing professional education of teachers exemplify a predictive model that is complementary to this study's research theme. Upon examining trends and processes in in-service education Rubin establishes a set of postulations and principles that provide a predictive framework for policy development, research and practice to evolve.

In summary, the analysis in this study will utilize all three of Deutsch's analytical functions. The research will illuminate comparative perspectives while generating knowledge and a critical framework based on the actual characteristics applicable to any induction programme. Certainly, this knowledge will be both reflective and selective of the interests of the writer. However, as Deutsch states "important knowledge

is learned from the selective operations and the system of symbolic representation by which characteristics of <educational> programmes may be experienced and measured by the investigator (p. 5).

To ensure the analysis will reflect various orientations of interpreting the academic and organisational data, two analytical models will be used, Conrad's theoretical framework for curriculum planning and Berman's three stage process for educational change. The following section describes these models as well as outlines the other analytical factors used in the study.

### Application of the Models

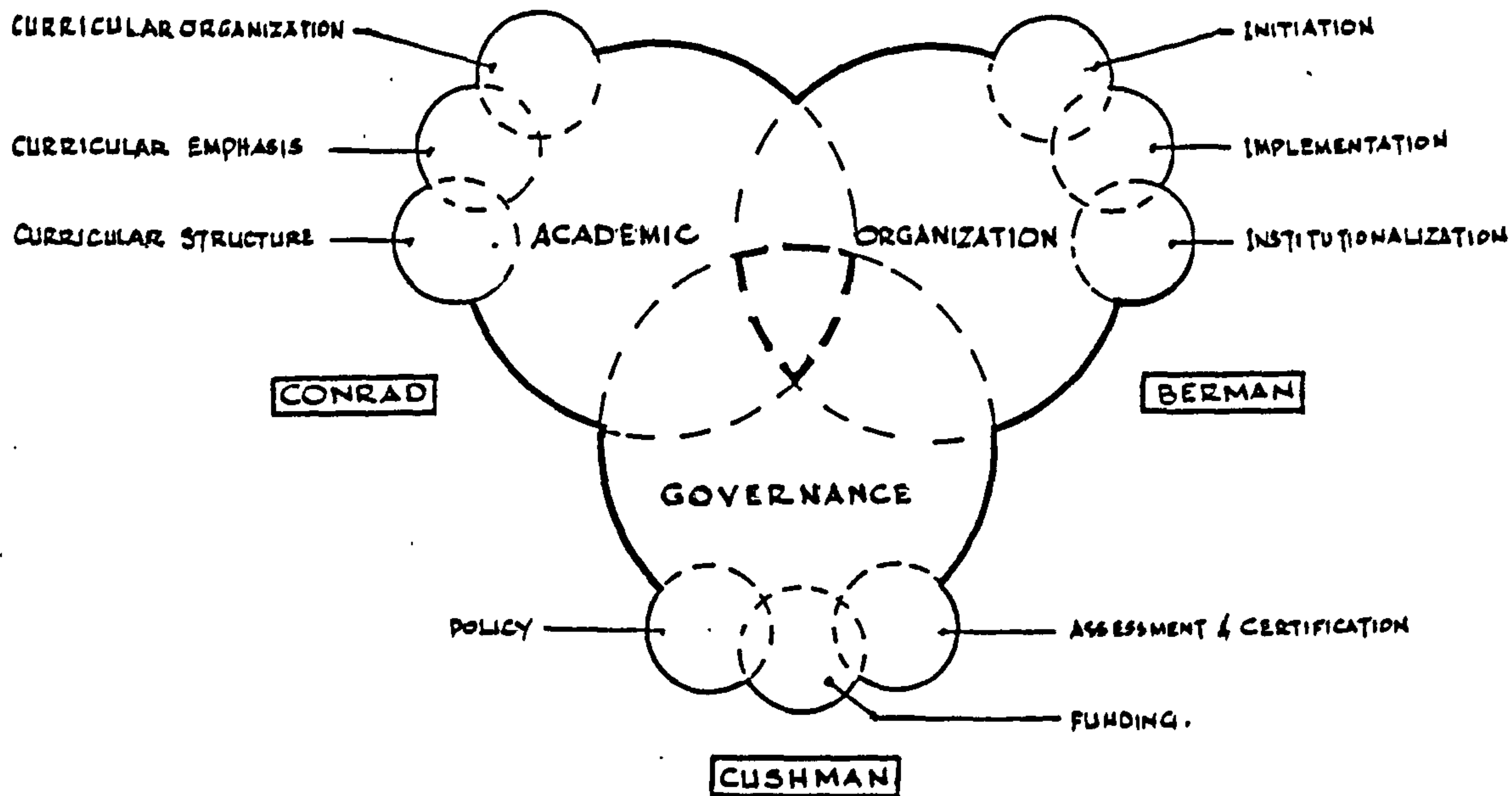
#### The Overall Analytical Framework

Before describing the details of the various analytical models and analytical factors used in this study the overall analytical framework to be used will be highlighted.

Model building is described by Kaplan (1963) as a uniquely cognitive strategy that is not to be directly associated with empirical research or quantitative analysis. However, Kaplan does suggest that a defensible usage of model building is when research attempts to examine or build "theories which explicitly direct attention to certain semblances between the theoretical entities and the real subject matter" (p. 265). Hence the analytical models proposed by Conrad (1978) and Berman (1981) and the analytical factors described by Cushman (1977) combine to formulate an overall analytical framework to study the academic, organisational and governance components of induction. Figure 5 (p. 118) illustrates this overall framework.

Figure 5

Overall Analytical Framework for  
Examining Induction Programmes



In essence the presentation and analysis of data for each country will examine the three components of induction as reflective by the sub-components of each analytical theme. For example the application of Conrad's academic framework will present and analyse the relevant data according to the curricular organisation principle, curricular emphases and curricular structure. This analysis will be complemented by the application of Berman's educational change framework upon the initiation, implementation and institutionalization phases of the organisational component. Finally, both of these analytical frameworks will be integrated with Cushman's governance factors: policy, funding, assessment and certification. The remainder of the chapter describes the details of each analytical component of the study.

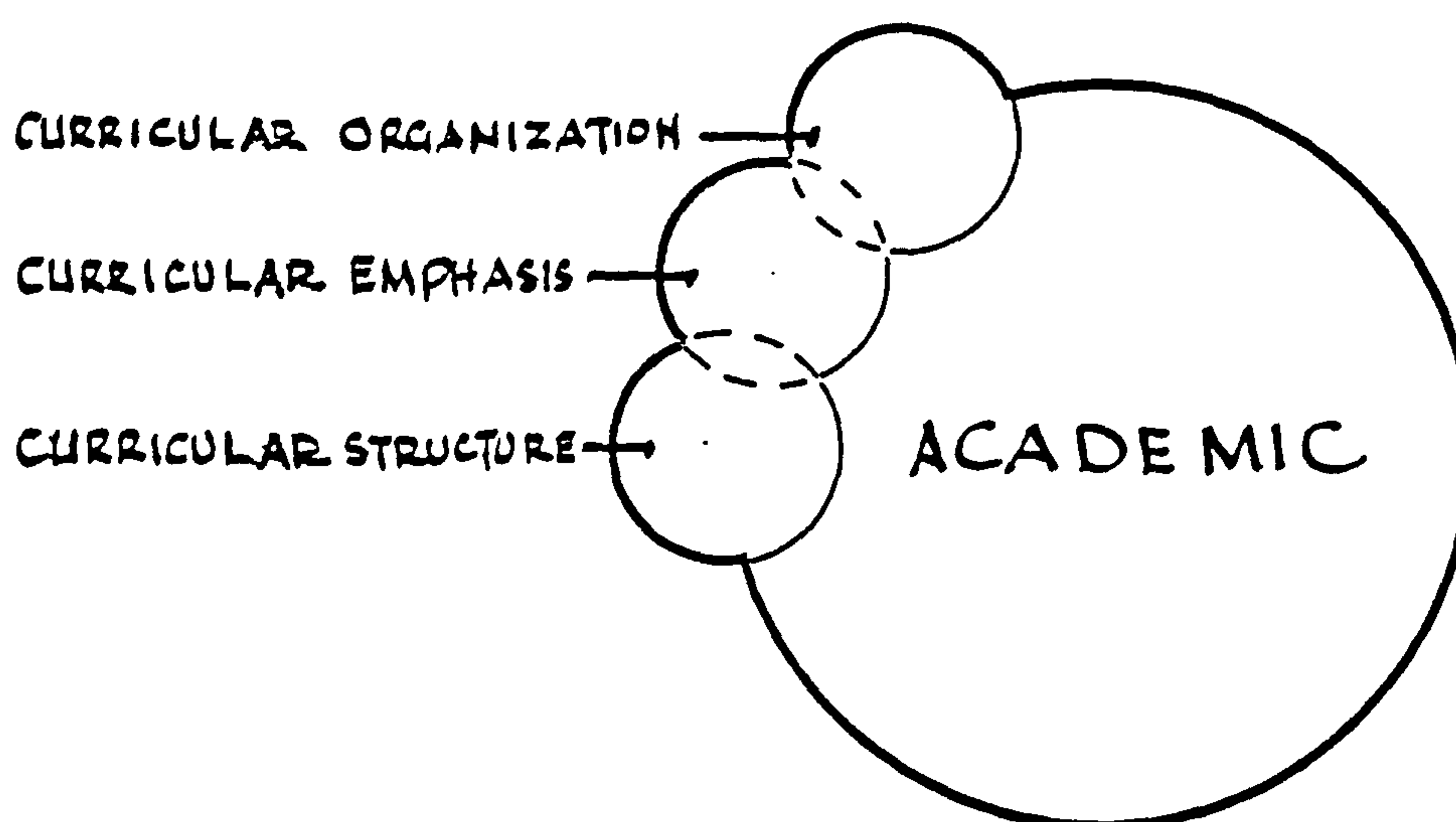


### Conrad's Model of Academic Programming

The academic framework drawn upon for this study is Conrad's theoretical framework for curriculum planning in post-secondary education. Conrad has designed a three step process that provides a baseline for analysing or developing a curriculum plan. The examination of an academic programme includes: choosing a curricular organising or conceptual principle, establishing a curricular emphasis and building a curricular structure (Figure 6). This model emphasizes, however, that the final design of the programme will be strongly influenced by political, financial and academic traditions within each planning phase.

Figure 6

### Conrad's Model of Academic Components



The curricular organising principle has been categorized into five themes by Conrad. These themes are i) academic disciplines or subject emphasis; ii) student development that reflects both affective and cognitive domains; iii) great books or ideas implying a classical tradition of philosophical

literary inquiry; iv) social problems, "both contemporary and futuristic in orientation stressing the importance of the application of knowledge", (p. 13); and v) selected competencies that consider demonstrated instructional and practical skill reflective of varying levels of competence. Application of these five conceptual principles within the study of induction programmes will be demonstrated in the study both in articulated programme goals as well as in the manner in which the knowledge of induction is organized and communicated.

Curriculum emphasis is the second process of analysis regarding Conrad's model of academic analysis. Four continua are identified by which the curriculum emphasis may be distinguished. Figure 7 illustrates the potential diversity of each continuum.

Figure 7

### Conrad's Four Continua for Identifying Curricular Emphases

- ## 1. Locus of Learning

Campus Based    Experiential  
Classroom Learning ←————→ Learning

- ## 2. Curriculum Content

Breadth  $\longleftrightarrow$  Depth

- ### 3. Design of Programme

Faculty ←———— Contractual —————→ Self-Directed

- #### 4. Flexibility of Programme

Required ←—— Distribution ———→ Elective

A traditional emphasis within an induction programme would include a course based or workshop oriented programme having a broad syllabus that would contain many instructional or competency based requirements. This traditional emphasis would also be characterized by consultants, mentors and university personnel who would be responsible for the design, instruction and evaluation of the beginning teacher's programme. On the other end or the innovative emphasis of the continuum, beginning teachers would be able to investigate and learn more "detailed knowledge of the concepts, terminology, and methodology of a particular way of organizing knowledge" (p. 14). This alternative perspective or progressive orientation would also provide a myriad of learning experiences combined with many elective options within the induction process. Furthermore, instructional opportunities and evaluative procedures would be characterized by self-directed experiences. In summary this innovative continuum within an induction programme would respect the autonomy of the beginning teacher.

Conrad's third organizing principle for curriculum planning considers the factors that must be incorporated into building the curricular structure. By applying these factors to induction programmes several academic components could be incorporated. These components apply to: the certification requirements including general education; required competencies and programme electives; optional programming including teacher designed and self-directed options; programme scheduling whether daily, weekly, monthly or by individual contracting; location of programme activities; teacher assessment practices; selection of beginning teachers for induction



programmes; and administrative and financial responsibilities for organizing and managing the curriculum.

Conrad proposes that this three component analytical framework can be used both for investigation of a programme's existing curriculum as well as a "heuristic device to encourage planners to think of curricular arrangements implied by combinations of organizing principles and curricular emphases which are not currently in vogue" (1978, p. 44). Given that the intention of this thesis is to examine alternative perspectives within the academic orientation of induction programmes, Conrad's academic framework appears most suitable.

#### Berman's Model of Educational Change

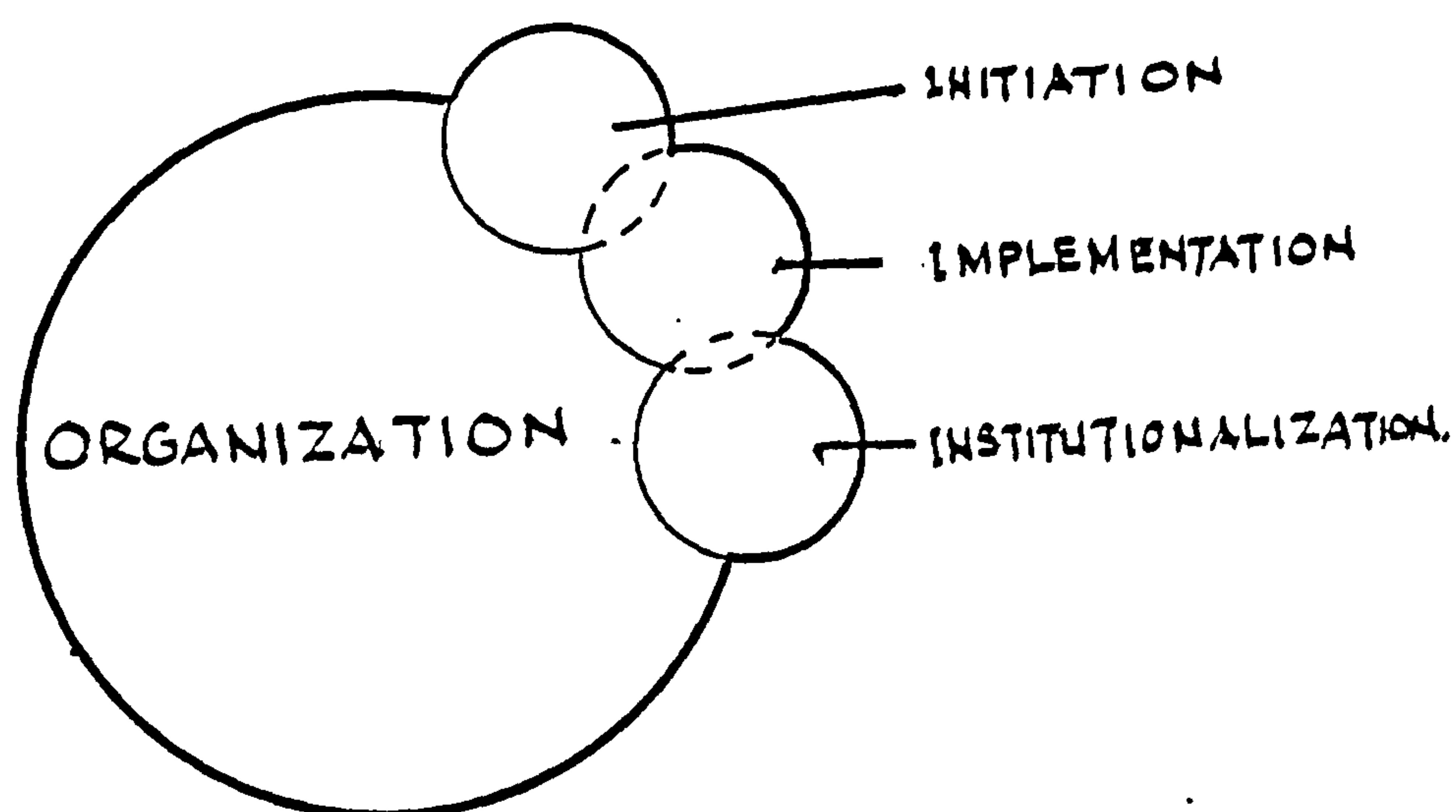
As described earlier in chapter 5 Berman (1981) has developed a paradigm for educational change. His three stage process offers an analytical framework for examining the implementation of organisational sub-processes that are interconnected rather than linearly sequenced: mobilization or initiation, implementation and institutionalization (Figure 8, p. 123). As mentioned, Berman suggests that these three sub-processes emphasize a connecting flow of events within any educational change endeavour rather than a change process that is a linearly related sequence of stages based on discrete decisions.

In 1984 international School Improvement Project representatives (Louks, Andrews, and Crandall, 1984) of the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation O.E.C.D. extended Berman's model and developed a qualitative analytical framework for examining the role and activities that the external support system may assume within school improvement

projects. Besides incorporating categories that describe the purpose, general characteristics and organisational framework of an external support system, various phases of the implementation process: initiation, implementation and institutionalization were also included. The benefits of this analytical framework ensure that educators in different countries could share information and materials as well as illuminate key issues, concerns and knowledge associated with the role that the external support systems assume in school improvement projects. It is this model that this study has adapted for examining the educational and implementation change process within induction programmes.

Figure 8

Berman's Model of Educational Change



In summary, the three stage model contains various sub-components within each phase. The initiation stage includes the analysis of the planning process as well as the diagnostic

components that incorporate the establishment of a new education programme. The implementation stage meanwhile focuses upon the management, content and evaluative components. The third stage, the institutionalization phase, describes not only what features of the educational initiative remain but also what evaluation techniques and withdrawal procedures are utilized.

### Other Analytical Factors

Within the analysis of data of this research two other theoretical references will be used to investigate the implications of the documentation. For example, besides Conrad's and Berman's frameworks a third analytical component has been developed for this thesis, namely the governance factor.

### Governance Factor

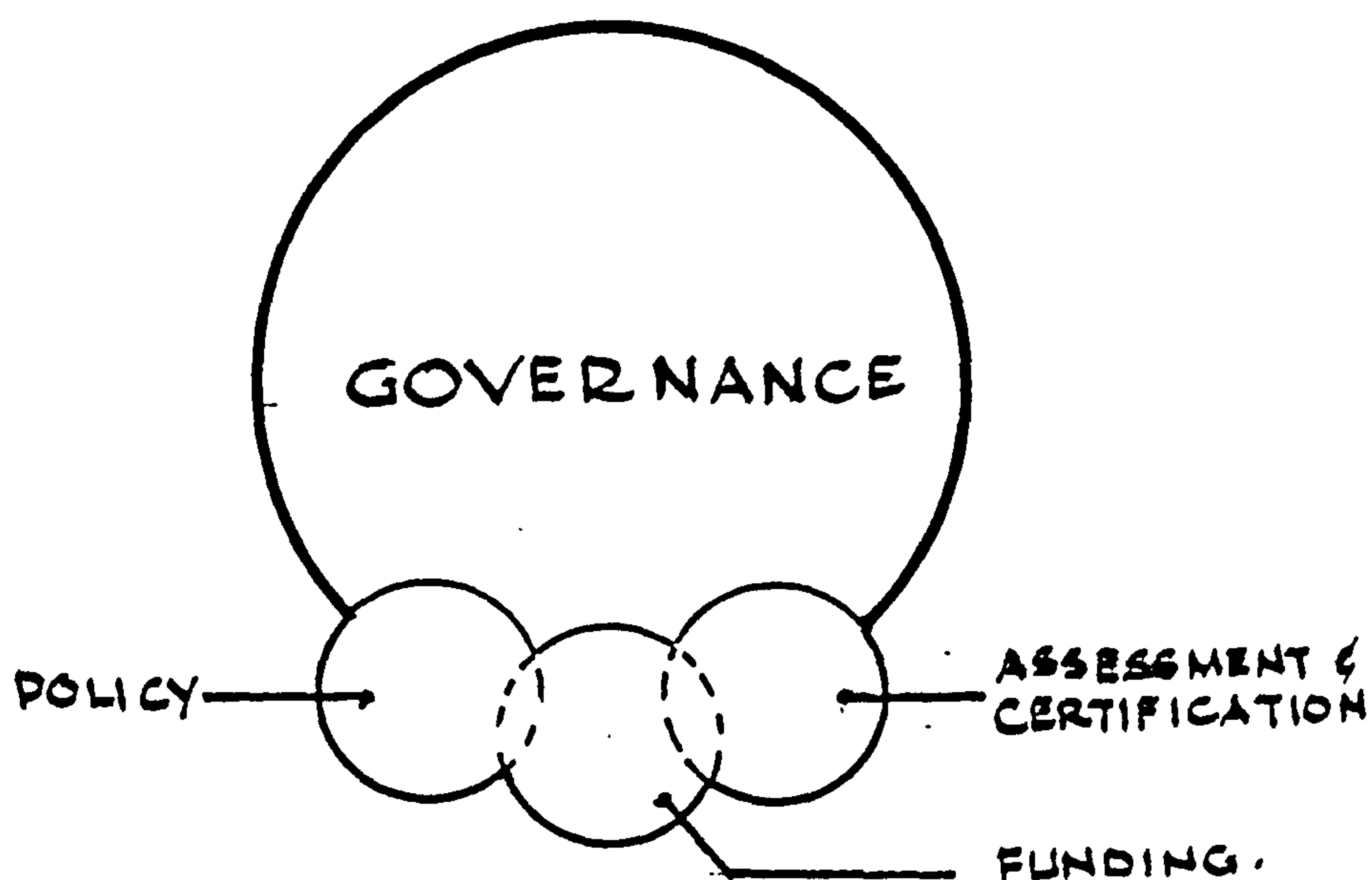
Governance is described by Cushman (1977) as a jurisdictional function that enables the institution to achieve its purposes. Legislative policy control, responsibility and/or access to funding sources, and professional monitoring procedures are examples of governance factors that represent the jurisdictional powers of educational institutions. In essence the teacher education system relies upon the governance factors to either maintain or change, institutionalize or innovate. Furthermore, the system of jurisdictional control, whether it be autocratic or participatory, also influences the governance profile of the representative stakeholders in teacher education. Hence this investigation of induction programmes will use three major governance factors. These factors are policy development, funding guidelines and assessment and



certification procedures (Figure 9). Although each country may structure the governance factors differently, the analysis of each induction programme will profile the interrelationship of these factors as well as indicate the potential interdependency with the academic and organisational components.

Figure 9

Cushman's Governance Factors



Fullan Adoption Typology

Fullan's (1983) text on educational change offers an interesting analytical typology that may be applied to this research. Fullan's treatise on this subject suggests that ten key factors must be addressed when adopting new educational programmes. Figure 10 (p. 126) lists these factors. Fullan's account of educational change emphasizes that it is not a

singular or linear process but rather a multidimensional manifestation. Furthermore, irrespective of the degree to which the adoption of these factors are interrelated or interdependent, Fullan posits that "significant change can be accomplished by taking a developmental approach building in more and more components of the change over time" (p. 102).

Figure 10

Fullan's Typology of Educational Change Adoption Factors

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 1. Existence and quality of innovation | 6. Community pressure/support              |
| 2. Access to information               | 7. Availability of federal or other funds  |
| 3. Advocacy from administrators        | 8. New legislation or policy               |
| 4. Teacher pressure/support            | 9. Problem solving incentives for adoption |
| 5. Consultants and change agents       | 10. Bureaucratic incentives for adoption   |

In conclusion, it is important to reemphasize that the "transfer of content and methods of education from one cultural system to another must be tackled with critical care and judgement" (Morrish, 1976, p. 18). Therefore, the application of the various analytical models within the context of each state or regional induction programme, let alone the individual countries, must be undertaken judiciously. In certain constituencies certain governance, academic or organisation components may not be evident. Whereas in some induction programmes the institutionalization factor may now be absent. However the implementation of induction programme options will

not be rated as good or bad. Rather the constituent parts of the enterprise will be described as reported in policy documents, published reports, evaluation papers and fugitive literature. The identification and development of distinguishable paradigms of induction programmes will result.

Justiz (1984) suggests that the major challenge for teacher educators now appears to be using documented research and evaluative studies (Bolam, Baker, and McMahon, 1979; Katz, 1980; Griffin, 1985; Koehler, 1985) as a means of improving teacher education. However, if teacher education institutions simply attempt to insert the research facts in a linear progression within teacher education programming, little reform will occur in the educational institutions but instead would more greatly compound its complexities (Lanier, 1984). Hence the underlying intention of the research methodology of this study is to use the comparative analysis of induction programmes in five different countries so as to formulate a set of induction programme paradigms. This methodological practice will hopefully illuminate the values and implications of adopting the message of research and the pedagogical orientations within induction.

### Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the case and field methodological procedures that are used in this thesis to both present and analyse the research documentation. First a description and rationale were provided regarding the use of naturalistic research approach. This form of qualitative research emphasises the ethnographic approach using both participant and non-participant reporting. A triangulation



research procedure was outlined indicating the three data collection categories, archival-based material, interview-acquired material, and evaluation and research documents. Validation of this method was supported by the literature.

Two major analytical models, Conrad's academic framework and Berman's educational change paradigm, were presented indicating how the various components of the induction programmes will be categorized and analysed. A rationale for using theoretical and analytical models based on Deutsch's typology of organisational, heuristic and predictive models was also presented. Examples of other analytical factors and their application to teacher education research were outlined as well. An analytical frameworks devised by Fullan and the governance factor proposed by Cushman are also described thereby identifying the multi-dimensional criteria that will be relevant to this comparative study.

Finally the chapter argues for the need to formulate a set of new induction programme paradigms that will illuminate the various alternatives and complexities within induction programme practice. Hence the research documentation is explained as being predicated on the validation of the data source while complemented by the application of the theoretical constructs used through a naturalistic inquiry approach. Hence, the totality of interrelationships among the various components of induction will be balanced by individual examination of contrasting or comparative circumstances within each factor of analysis. As Apple (1978) suggests in supporting the case study as a qualitative form of research.

"The strength lies in its depth, its ability to enable inquirers and readers to sense the framework and texture of meanings and events as they are built and they interact in one specific setting."

(p. 499)

## Introduction to Section 4

### PRESENTATION OF DATA

"In a simple matrix interrelationship all of the attributes or components of a problem can be rated as to their dependence upon or independence from one another."

(Koberg and Bagnall, 1972, p. 62)

To document efficiently and instructively the documentation of this comparative study it was considered preferable to use a matrix format. Each of the five countries' induction programmes is examined in a similar procedure utilizing background information, contextual references, and a various factors reflective of each programme. The matrix of factors used within the analytical framework and related description criteria include i) the academic components identified in Conrad's model, i.e., curricular organising principle, curricular emphases and curricular structure; ii) the organisational components constituted in Berman's model, i.e., initiation, implementation and institutionalization; and iii) the governance factors described in Cushman's systems analysis, policy development, assessment and certification, and funding source. This matrix will provide a consistent point of reference for the presentation of each country's induction programme. The order of description will be Britain, Australia, New Zealand, U.S.A. and Canada.



## Chapter 7

### INDUCTION PROGRAMMES IN BRITAIN

The efforts of teacher educators to establish induction programmes began most comprehensively in Britain during the 1970's. By 1981 this national impetus to improve the quality of teacher education had almost disappeared. However, as of 1985 induction programmes continue to be promoted and some do remain operational in certain local education authorities (L.E.A.s). This chapter will briefly outline the programmatic evolution of British induction programmes; two nationally sponsored programmes, the Liverpool Project and the Northumberland Project, have been selected as the major focus. The academic, governance and organisational components of each programme will be described and the programme evaluations undertaken by British educational authorities and researchers will be highlighted. However, prior to examining the various components of the two induction programmes a general overview of the British induction initiatives will be summarized.

#### Background

Throughout the late sixties and early seventies dissatisfaction with teacher education was very evident in Britain (Evans, 1978; Lynch, 1977). Debates on i) the traditional and stifling nature of initial teacher education; ii) the poor quality of support for teachers during the probationary period; and iii) the disjointed programmatic provisions for in-service education were commonplace within educational institutions. All recommendations and proposals seem to lead

to one conclusion, a major over-all strategy for the development of teacher education was required. In 1972 the Department of Education Science (D.E.S.) of the James Committee (D.E.S., 1972) addressed the issue. The adoption of teacher education reform had begun. Induction was now formally a proposition for this potential reformation.

However, although the James Report did provide the political and promotional endorsement for induction in Britain, it was actually the Taylor and Dale (1971) study of the probationary year that introduced substantive concepts on induction programming. Their investigation of beginning teachers indicate that not only should courses, workshops, supervisory visitations be made a regular part of the professional development programme for beginning teachers, but these programmes should "vary in timing, in their duration, in their content and . . . in their aims" (p. 245) according to the individual needs of the probationary teachers. In summary Taylor and Dale recognized that an overall improvement of systematic support must be afforded the beginning teacher. However, individual "profiles" were proposed so that the supervisory advice, instructional support and induction programming could meet the needs of the individual teacher.

Furthermore, as the Bradley and Eggleston study (1978) also suggested, assessment procedures of probationary teachers should incorporate a variety of methods with varying criteria. Criteria such as performance and achievement of pupils, quality of improvement over instructional weaknesses, rating scales that distinguish components of teaching performance, subjective essays or journals where beginning teachers

describe their work, and supervisors' evaluative reports should all combine to establish the teacher's profile.

Therefore the British perspective emanating from these research studies as well as the James Report and other evaluative studies (Hill, 1975; Baker, 1978; Bolam, Baker, and McMahon, 1979) have continued to emphasize the need for recognizing the professional individuality of the beginning teacher. Teacher educators in Britain tend to believe and postulate that the probationary year is not simply a period of assessment but rather a period of professional development that establishes attitude and understanding among beginning teachers with regard to pursuing continuous learning during their teaching careers. Furthermore, as reported in the Green Paper (D.E.S., 1977) the induction programme was seen as a productive and not stressful learning situation.

"It should be possible for the workload and level of responsibility which new teachers undertake during this period of practical apprenticeship to be reduced and more closely defined and there should be no necessity for the more difficult teaching tasks to be assigned to them." (p. 2)

Plans to introduce, implement and evaluate model induction programmes that would characterize these principles began with the D.E.S. in 1974. Five pilot induction schemes in five L.E.A.'s were organised. However, due to financial and organisational difficulties the number was reduced to two, Liverpool and Northumberland. After four years the pilot programmes were concluded. The fate of these two programmes will be discussed shortly but during that time and in the subsequent years the potential value of induction programmes began



to mobilize other L.E.A.'s in Britain to undertake their own induction programme. Some of these programmes will also be outlined.

Over the past few years a dramatic decrease in the demand for teachers has occurred in Britain. Hence with an equally problematic economy the hiring of new teachers has been greatly reduced. Nevertheless, research studies (D.E.S., 1982; Patrick, Bernbaum, and Reid, 1983) and the efforts of various L.E.A.'s Leeds, Avon, Hounslow and Wakefield have continued to profile the potential value of induction. Consequently the probationary year and the complementary induction practices, although not highly financed or regarded as a major priority on a staff development programme agenda, continue to function. Therefore, before examining the Liverpool and Northumberland projects a summary of other British induction programmes is presented. The Teacher Induction Pilot Schemes Evaluation Project (Bolan, Baker and McMahon, 1979) refers to these programmes as the unsponsored schemes. These are induction programmes that did not receive special grants from the government but rather met these induction costs through the local L.E.A. budget. Although based on the induction principles of the James Report these programme models provide alternative examples of induction from the Liverpool and Northumberland projects.

#### Avon

Following a few years of informal induction practices the Avon In-Service Education Professional Consultative Group was established in 1975 to plan and coordinate in-service programming within the Avon L.E.A. (Bolan, Baker, and McMahon,

1979). The establishment of an induction scheme was a major initiative of this in-service group. The induction programme was a four stage process; orientation meetings, ongoing group meetings, in-service activities for probationary teachers, and a concluding conference near the end of the school year. Teacher centres were used as the instructional location and experienced teachers and college of education lecturers (a unique feature of this L.E.A.) assumed the responsibility of co-tutors for the probationary teachers. The L.E.A. produced a standard handbook but individual schools were encouraged to consider their own induction policy. Reduced teaching loads for probationers were rarely evident. Training sessions were provided for tutors who in turn organised and developed induction resource materials, sample lessons, video tapes and a directory of skills for the beginning teachers. There was no special induction budget hence money was rechannelled from in-service or other professional development line items. During 1975-76 433 probationary teachers, the highest number to ever participate, were involved in the induction programme (Bolam et al., op. cit.).

During the eighties the overall impact of induction programming was greatly moderated but induction programme practices are still visible within the individual schools. This is evidenced through the school based staff development project that promoted professional activities for all staff members (Oldroyd, Smith, and Lee, 1980). Within the needs assessment of the staff a probationary teacher in cooperation with their assigned head or teacher tutor would identify various topics that could be incorporated into the staff development pro-

gramme. A series of regular meetings, supervisory sessions and workshops would then be organised to assist the probationer address pertinent issues or problems within their teaching assignment. The induction year handbook is used as the main reference document to assist both beginning teacher and tutor.

### Leeds

In 1975 Leeds L.E.A. adopted two induction practices. One approach was a more laissez-faire model where individual schools were expected to develop their own induction programme for beginning teachers and were encouraged to designate one staff member in the school to become responsible for the probationers. No special funding was available but an L.E.A. advisory team prepared an induction handbook and organised special workshops for the beginning teachers. All summative assessment would be completed by the school head.

The second approach was an induction in-service scheme financed by the L.E.A.. Probation was promoted as the linking bridge of continuous staff development and hence the appointment of teacher-tutors in the ten participating schools was seen as in-service development for these experienced teachers. Beginning teachers had a reduced load of 20% and tutors were released one-half day per week for in-service work. Overall, a formalized induction programme was organised for the beginning teachers. This programme consisted of lectures and seminars focussing upon interaction skills, communication and self-assessment. A comprehensive case study on the role of the tutor as a change agent in assisting the probationer and developing the induction programme in the school was made (Bolam, Baker, McMahon, Davis, and McCabe, 1977). An outcome



was that tutors could effectively assist both the probationer and the implementation of the induction programme by assuming the role of organiser, informant, pastoral support and consultant. All role elements were interconnected but each responsibility had to be identified clearly within their supervisory relationship with the beginning teacher.

As in Avon the numbers of probationary teachers greatly decreased from 1975 through to the present. However, the induction scheme and its evaluative results did encourage a continuation of induction practices even though direct funding from the L.E.A. did not continue. School based and L.E.A. based programming incorporated the induction programming so that by the 1980's a collaborative venture with the Leeds Polytechnic, Leeds University and the surrounding L.E.A.'s offered in-service programming for tutors and special workshops for beginning teachers. Resource materials, annual programme evaluations and specialized teacher tutors in each school continue to be evident.

#### Inner London Education Authority (I.L.E.A.)

In 1978 following earlier research efforts and analysis of surveyed induction practices the I.L.E.A. implemented a formal induction scheme. All probationers were provided release time, one-half day per week, of which this time was divided between attending workshops at the local teacher centre and undertaking induction activities at their respective school. Each school identified a staff member to be responsible for all beginning teachers in the school and this individual would coordinate the induction activities that included observing other teachers, working with experienced teachers, preparing

lessons, and evaluating their own teaching (Jayne 1980a). No minimum requirements for supervisory visitations with teacher tutors were identified, however five to six visits were most common. A comprehensive handbook was prepared.

As the I.L.E.A. programme evolved various implementation strategies were enhanced. First, the description and expectations of the roles and tasks of the participating beginning teachers and tutors became more specific. Information regarding the individual activities of each school's induction programme plus I.L.E.A. induction initiatives were better communicated. Timing and regularity of supervisory visits and workshop programming was also routinized within most schools. Overall, the organisational components of the programme were better administered.

Nevertheless, a comprehensive report of the programme (Jayne 1980b) did indicate concerns that have continued to interfere with the overall induction programme's potential success. First, induction has not been readily incorporated into the overall staff development functions of the school. Consequently total acceptance by the school of their total responsibilities to the beginning teacher, as well as incorporating the benefits of a tutor supervisory training programme into the staff development activities, have not been realized. Second, support and training of all administrators, inspectors, advisors, heads and wardens needed to be built into the overall induction programme. Although efforts are being made to assist the individual tutors and probationers it is evident that greater support, assessment practices, and overall staff development policy will not improve unless in-service programming and improvement of communication is

afforded this administrative group.

### The Liverpool and Northumberland Induction Programmes

Although various induction programmes have evolved, discontinued, or been re-introduced to the British educational system since 1974, two programmes represent the prototype for British induction models. These two programmes, Liverpool and Northumberland, were initially sponsored by the Department of Education Science to enable the theoretical concepts and practical components of the James Report to be implemented. The two schemes one urban, Liverpool, one rural, Northumberland, were to be organised with the help of the respective universities in Liverpool and Newcastle and to be independently evaluated by the University of Bristol. The intention of the following description is to summarise both programmes as they prevailed in the 1970's indicating the differences and similarities relative to their academic, governance, and organisational components. Then a programmatic status update of both induction schemes as evidenced during the 1980's will conclude the description.

### Academic Components

#### Curricular Organising Principle

The basic objectives of the two programmes were to improve induction practices for probationary teachers and to establish instructional and advisory personnel, namely tutors, as a regular component of an induction programme in a school. The organising principle to encompass such objectives may be defined within Conrad's academic paradigm as a curriculum of teacher development. The six broad aims common to both induction schemes included:



to help improve specific teaching techniques in a curriculum area;

to help improve general teaching techniques, i.e., classroom organisation, pupil assessment;

to help form sound professional relationships;

to provide information about the school;

to provide information about the L.E.A.;

to provide personal information and advice.

### Curricular Emphases

The establishment of the curricular emphases in the four continua, locus of learning, curriculum content, design of programme and flexibility of programme were quite clearly established within the induction programmes. Both the Liverpool and Northumberland schemes perceived that an effective induction programme should have both experiential and classroom (workshop) learning. Hence, experiential or school based programmes, termed the internal school programme, were to rely upon the staff development activities aimed at the beginning teacher. Teacher-tutor supervision, individual and group discussions, professional resource support and teacher assessment by the head were to provide the basis for this component of the curriculum. The workshop or external programmes were generally curriculum or generic teaching seminars and lectures conducted at the teacher centres. Course content would provide elective choice for the beginning teachers in subject areas that they could examine in depth. Courses would be taught by L.E.A. resource teachers as well as university education faculty.

### Curricular Structure

The overall design and balance of both internal and external programmes was monitored by the L.E.A. advisors. Questions of supervisory practice, programming options and issues of assessment criteria were clarified and sometimes defined where appropriate. The handbook for induction practices was individually developed within each Liverpool and Northumberland scheme emphasizing individual L.E.A. policy, contractual expectations and an overview of programme responsibilities relative to probationer, teacher-tutor, head, L.E.A. advisor, district warden and inspectors.

Hence the overall curricular structure of both programmes afforded probationers with a reduced teaching load, appointed and trained working teachers as teacher-tutors, and arranged courses for probationers at professional development centres taught by L.E.A. and university resource personnel. These external course options required one full day per week of instruction.

Incorporated with the probationers curriculum syllabus was the establishment of a teacher-tutor in-service programme that aimed to develop a consistent form of instructional, communication, and supervisory content that all teacher-tutors would become knowledgeable of and skilled within. Conducting tutorials, planning probationers programmes, keeping records, reviewing lessons, identifying problems, reinforcing successes, translating pre-service theory into practice, conducting observations and supervisory meetings for individuals and conducting weekly seminars with the whole group of probationers, comprised some of the in-service activity that tutors examined when attending their teacher-tutor workshops. Both

the Liverpool and Northumberland schemes emphasized the importance of the teacher-tutor as being pivotal to the success of their respective induction programmes (Davis, 1982; McCabe, 1982).

### Governance Factors

Policy development, funding, assessment and certification comprise the main factors within the governance of induction programmes. In both Liverpool and Northumberland similar procedures prevailed.

### Policy

For example the overall policy guidelines concerning the academic and organisational components of both induction schemes were prepared by the D.E.S.. Given that 60% of the funding of the two pilot schemes was from the D.E.S. specific programme components were required for implementation, i.e., reduced teaching load for probationers, release time for probationers, appointment of and release time for tutors, training programmes for tutors and programme development in both internal (school based) and external (teacher centre or college based) induction activities. However, with both the local educational authorities in Liverpool and Northumberland contributing 40% of the funding for induction costs programme elements such as implementation and internal evaluation procedures, curricular and instructional course development, and tutor training programmes became the autonomous jurisdiction of the L.E.A.s. These differences and unique programme features will be highlighted in the section on organisational components.



### Funding

The cost of releasing probationers and tutors was reflected in teacher substitute cost which averaged £1000. per annum. This item became the most expensive item within both induction programmes. Tutors were normally paid £100. and an additional 20. per probationer (maximum of five). The overall D.E.S. grant was generally proportioned according to the number of probationer teachers.

### Assessment and Certification

Probationers enter the profession with either i) three-year certificate, college based, and 20 weeks of school practice; ii) a similar programme plus one year B.Ed. College based; or iii) three year B.A./B.Sc., university based, with one year certification programme with ten weeks school practice. Furthermore the content and programme experiences within pre-service programmes are controlled by the universities and teacher colleges. Hence programmatic design of the L.E.A. induction programmes minimally takes into account the various theoretical preparation and practica experiences of pre-service programmes.

Assessment of probationers is made by L.E.A. advisors after conferencing with the head and teacher-tutor. Advisors may also call upon curriculum resource specialists or in serious circumstances the principal area advisor when assessing a probationer's performance. Probationers receiving a poor report may be given an extension into their second year of teaching so as to complete their induction programme. As one may realize evaluation of teacher performance is totally within the jurisdiction of each L.E.A.. Assessment of proba-

tioners and reporting procedures used by tutors and school heads become an important topic of discussion among all participants within the induction schemes. The most problematic factor was that supervisory support from the tutors did not become formally recorded as a formative assessment document. Hence the school heads and inspectors' summative evaluative visits were mostly in isolation of the other formative supervisory activities. Upon completion of the induction programme, probationers would be recommended by the head for permanent certification. However, beginning teachers receiving this final recommendation would only continue into a second year of teaching if jobs were available.

### Organisational Components

Using Berman's conceptual model of implementing educational innovation the three stages of initiation, implementation and institutionalization are most evident in both the Liverpool and Northumberland programmes. First the Liverpool induction scheme will be examined.

#### Liverpool

##### Initiation

Representing an urban educational area D.E.S. invited Liverpool to participate even though there was a certain amount of reluctance by the teachers and heads on the adoption of systematic induction (Davis, 1979). However, surveys indicated that induction practices in Liverpool were very loose or non-existent and the L.E.A. decided to contract with the D.E.S. to undertake the scheme. The project was to be three years but a fourth extension year was added. To initiate the project a new administrative section on teacher development

was assembled, an advisory committee comprising 46 representatives of the L.E.A. educational community were appointed and four professional centres to implement the external induction programme courses were established. Once these induction components were operating, a twelve month process to establish, the first year of the scheme began.

### Implementation

In essence the implementation process had three basic elements that each school had to comply. One, a teacher-tutor was appointed from each school where probationary teachers were beginning their induction year. A release time of 5% of the time tabled week was given to each tutor to undertake their supervisory responsibilities. Two, release time for the probationary teacher to the extent of 25% of his teaching load was provided so that classroom observations, preparation time, resource acquisition and tutorial meetings could be pursued. Third, each school had to organise special induction activities that were not duplicating nor replacing the external induction programme activities offered at the professional centre. Naturally these requirements still afforded latitude among the schools to develop induction programmes that would reflect the number, subject or level emphasis, and staff development activities within each school.

All schools would have a minimum of one and a maximum of three tutors in each school dependent on the number of probationary teachers present. General supervision of the probationer's instructional activities; orientation to the school, staff, rules and regulations; facilitating contact with professional centres, and providing classroom observation and



seminar instruction were the main expectations of the tutor's responsibilities. Teacher tutors were paid an hononarium of approximately £ 75. or \$200. per probationer and attendance at the orientation and in-service sessions for tutors was recommended.

The various colleges and professional centres combined their resources and organised a comprehensive external programme of courses most of which were subject oriented. The individual subjects were prepared in consultation with specialist advisors.

#### Institutionalization

Over the four year period 534 primary and 967 secondary probationers were involved in the programme. However, by the last year 1977-78 only 170 probationers were involved in the programme. This sharp decrease in the enrolment reflected the dramatic decrease in the demand for teachers in the Liverpool area. It should also be noted that during that four year period 677 teacher tutors became involved in the induction programme of which 70 took part in the complementary in-service sessions.

Given the withdrawal of D.E.S. funding and the few probationary teachers that were being hired the L.E.A. in Liverpool decided to discontinue the induction programme. In 1982-83 a new induction programme was being revitalized. This programme was to be pursued in a greatly abbreviated format with six 1/2 day sessions per year. An induction booklet was to be provided for each school with information meetings to be organised for tutors.

Funding problems prevented any release time for tutors or

probationary teachers. Furthermore, hiring of new teachers was still minimal. One interesting modification to the earlier D.E.S. scheme was that induction activities were being organised for second year teachers once they had completed their probationary year.

### Northumberland

#### Initiation

The initiation of the rural induction scheme in Northumberland had to reconcile the infra-structure of a new programme endeavour that was centrally coordinated with the existing staff development programmes of schools that by geographical distance alone had operated their own individualized programme. The main organisation of this programme rested with the principal advisor of the project who interacted on policy development and implementation strategies with the L.E.A. advisory committee and the induction programme administrative coordinator. Course content was planned by four different committees, each representing a section of the instructional level within the school system. Because Northumberland did not have any formalized professional teaching centres, three local teacher colleges and the University of Newcastle provided the external based course work in conjunction with the L.E.A. induction course committees.

Complementing the evaluation activities of the initiation stage Northumberland formulated an extensive assessment process (Taylor, 1975a) to acquire information on how to best develop the internal and external course induction programmes. Probationers, heads, second and third year teachers and experienced teachers were asked to identify problem areas that an

induction programme might address when helping probationers. Not only did this survey process enhance the programme design of the Northumberland induction scheme but also the various L.E.A. participants of the induction programme began to contribute and to understand more fully the implications of their role within the forthcoming programme. Programme priorities for incorporation into the internal and external programmes were organised to deal with wide ability groups, to prepare and develop specific techniques, to establish management procedures, and to develop positive relationships with children.

### Implementation

The implementation in the Northumberland project (Northumberland County Council, 1975) had some distinct differences from the implementation components of the Liverpool scheme. For example:

- 1) Residential courses became a common format for the external programme activities rather than the common one day per week structure. Because of geographical reasons this form of induction programming was more costly but also perceived by probationers as more comprehensive (Taylor, 1975).
- 2) Ongoing evaluative reports were not only self-monitoring regarding the implementation of the project but documents, i.e., Evaluation Report 18 (McCabe, 1978b), also provided a continuous documentation of perceptions by all participants involved with the Northumberland programme. For example, an outcome of this evaluative process was the preparation of induction programme content that would balance the wants and needs of probationary teachers with



recommended topics and curricular emphases of the teacher tutors and school heads.

- 3) Because of the rural setting, school age populations were far more stable hence the demand for new teachers was far less. For example, only 37% of schools in the first year of the project had probationers unlike Liverpool with over 78%. During the four years of the programme 561 probationers undertook the programme and 314 teacher-tutors participated. However by 1977-78, the fourth year of the project, enrolment had slipped from 220 to 87.
- 4) The induction scheme was very school based and the induction coordinator through the direction of the advisory committee would distribute L.E.A. policy, induction materials and the probationers' handbook to the head, tutor, and probationer for adoption within their school and staff development context.
- 5) As the project progressed, more teacher tutors participated each year in the in-service session organised for the tutors by the L.E.A. advisory committee.
- 6) Also as the project progressed, more tutors and former probationary teachers were incorporated into the various induction committees to help with programme design, in-service workshops, and programme evaluation.

### Institutionalization

Following the withdrawal of financial support by the D.E.S. in 1977 Northumberland decided to continue with its induction programme. This decision by the L.E.A. to institutionalize a professional development programme for probationers was complemented by assigning £ 30,000. for the employment of 70

probationers, the deployment of 70 teacher tutors, in-service sessions, and general operating costs that included substitute costs. Eight years later, despite tighter in-service and staff development budgets, fewer probationary teachers being hired, and a general decline in the interest of induction programming throughout Britain, Northumberland's induction programme continues. Teacher tutors, of whom most are now experienced, continue to provide a critical support and supervisory relationship with probationers. All school heads use the relevant induction handbook and resource materials when orienting probationers to their school and to the induction programme. The movement towards staff development as a priority for in-service funding has not eliminated induction rather it has been incorporated into the staff development priorities when probationers become part of the school staff. Teacher tutors still receive specialized workshops, but wherever possible tutors and probationers participate in the workshops together.

In summary, despite the unique differences of the Liverpool and Northumberland induction schemes both programmes did adopt the recommended James Report model for induction. Probationers were expected to receive direct supervisory assistance from heads, colleagues and teacher tutors within their respective school, and direct professional support was to be provided by the professional centres and colleges within the L.E.A.'s regional areas. Also, a unique organisational component was the establishment of the Advisory Committee Process in each L.E.A.. Given that these committees were representative of the three main interest groups; the teaching profession, the L.E.A. and the colleges of education and universities, organisa-

tional as well as academic and governance issues could be reviewed by all stakeholders within a structured and collaborative format.

By 1978 the Liverpool scheme did not receive continuing support from the local L.E.A.. Hence, induction programming ended in the Liverpool area. However, in Northumberland as in I.L.E.A., Hounslow, Avon, Leeds, Wakefield, and Glasgow induction programmes are continuing. Evaluation documentation outlined in the next section on the Liverpool and Northumberland programme may illuminate the reasons for some programmes continuing and other programmes disappearing.

#### Programme Evaluation

It is the intention of this section to provide an overview of evaluative data on Liverpool and Northumberland that highlights the major issues raised by the operation of these induction programmes. This is not a comprehensive summary but rather an account of the descriptive documentation that has been written by researchers and programme evaluators relative to the issues of this research study. Each country presented in the other chapters will conclude with a similar summary.

Evaluation of the Liverpool and Northumberland schemes over the four year period was carried out in three ways. First, the D.E.S. appointed Bristol University to evaluate the two pilot schemes and the other unsponsored schemes that were operating. This evaluation process culminated with a major report (Bolam, Baker, and McMahon, 1979). Second, both D.E.S. sponsored schemes contracted university personnel from Liverpool and Newcastle to monitor the evolution of the programme in each of the four successive years. Various question-



aires, opinion scales, interviews and statistical data were assimilated to provide both formative and final reports (Davis, 1979; McCabe, 1978). Third, each scheme, both D.E.S. sponsored and unsponsored, prepared independent research and evaluative documents that were presented at national conferences on induction, discussed at local advisory committee meetings and used to form the documentation for L.E.A. policy and funding authorities.

### Academic

1. Most probationary teachers adapted and socialized quite easily within the school following their participation in an induction programme. Recognition and continuous supervisory support by interested and supportive teacher-tutors were identified as a crucial reason (McCabe, 1978). A lack of adaptation by the probationer usually was for social reasons, i.e., personality, poor school ethos, disinterested staff members, rather than for academic or instructional problems. Only 3%-5% of all probationers during the four year period of the induction project required an extended probationary period, withdrew, or failed.

2. Joint participation by probationers and tutors seems to be the most effective way in resolving differing perspectives among both groups regarding classroom management, instructional content and curriculum emphasis. Workshop discussions involving various teams of probationers and tutors allows for more open dialogue and re-evaluation of teaching differences. Most differences occur more from differing philosophies and curriculum orientations rather than the fact that one teacher is a probationer, the other a tutor. Nevertheless,

limitations of teacher preparation at the pre-service institutions does accentuate and frustrate the expectations of the tutor on the preparedness of the probationer. However, probationers reflections of the induction experience two years following their probationary year emphasized that the most positive and memorable benefit was the support and advice provided by a helpful tutor or head (Casebourne and McCabe, 1979).

3. Professional development opportunities afforded probationers by both internal and external programme options appear to enrich the beginning teachers' socialization and instructional responsibilities. In summary, induction programmes have been recognized as most beneficial for the probationary teacher, particularly the "valued link between training, (pre-service) and teaching (permanent) and to promote effective adjustment and involvement" (Smyth and McCabe, 1981).

4. Survey evidence suggested that probationers participating in courses related to their curricula field of instructional assignment, i.e., infant school, was actually perceived as more valuable for the probationers than involvement in courses especially designed for induction purposes. Furthermore, probationers preferred to undertake course work that built upon their pre-service programme rather than enrol in course work that duplicated their earlier studies (Smyth and McCabe, 1981; Davis, 1982).

5. Critical reflection, self-assessment, invitational comment, and analysis about one's teaching did represent a common concern for probationers regarding their professional development during the induction year. Probationary teachers

often relied upon the judgement or supervisory advice of the tutor, head or L.E.A. advisor rather than assuming greater responsibility for their own self-analysis.

6. A general concern expressed in evaluation reports (McCabe, 1978) is that the development of induction programmes has not changed the academic or organisational framework of pre-service programmes at universities and colleges. Furthermore, no clear analysis has been made within the study of probationers to assist in answering how these changes may occur. According to McCabe (1978) new probationary teachers at the beginning of the school year still appear to be equally ill-prepared and unable to adjust to the needs of the school following pre-service.

### Governance

1. The National Evaluation Report on Induction (Bolam, Baker, and McMahon, 1979) provided a comprehensive overview of the activities of both the sponsored and unsponsored induction schemes during the period of time from 1973 to 1978. A strong emphasis was placed on the establishment of governance policies and regulations if induction was to continue and if the academic and organisational components of the programmes were to be maximized. Appendix A summarizes the key recommendations.

2. While implementing induction policy at the L.E.A. or national level Davis (1979) suggested that six thematic categories should be considered. These categories complement the governance adoption factors that Bolam et al. (1979) identified as they apply to such elements as i) scale, sequence and timing; ii) motivation and legitimation; iii) development in relation to



individual needs of probationer; iv) dissemination of policy and information guidelines; v) organisation and allocation of resources; vi) monitoring and review.

3. As the years progressed, various tutors became consistently involved within the induction programme in their L.E.A.. This cumulative experience was most beneficial to probationers and the overall implementation of the induction schemes. Three regular comments were that tutors i) appreciated the in-service sessions so that they could discuss their role, responsibilities and common concerns; ii) became more confident in their role after they had worked with their first probationary teacher; and iii) preferred their supervisory role as a co-worker rather than their evaluative role as a member of the assessment team.

4. To maximize the supportive and advisory capacity of the tutor, which in turn would enhance the collegial relationship of the tutor and probationer, policy must be clarified regarding the tutor's assessment responsibilities. Bolam et al. (1979) recommend that "wherever possible, the tutor should not be a direct super-ordinate and should not therefore be the probationer's head or head of department" (pp. 11-15). Nevertheless, in some L.E.A.s, i.e., Cumbria, the tutor is responsible for assessment.

5. Cost-benefit analyses on educational matters within the operation of the induction programmes is difficult to assess. Some costs are generally easy to identify such as salaries of replacement teachers, modified assignments of probationers and tutors, and the administrative costs of travel and in-service workshops. However, the incidental cost

of time, personnel resources, utilization of facilities, and the priority of induction over other in-service programme needs is not easy to estimate. Furthermore, the benefits in the form of improved induction practices, efficacy of probationers, supervisory skills of tutors, as well as direct benefits to pupil learning are most difficult to clearly identify. Both Davis (1979) and McCabe (1978b) emphasized that further evaluation and research was needed over a long term so as to more accurately portray and assess the cost-benefit issues.

6. Both D.E.S. funded projects in Liverpool and Northumberland relied heavily on the national funds to operate their induction programmes. Unlike Liverpool, Northumberland continued to pursue their own funded programme regardless of the reduction in operating budget. Smyth and McCabe (1980) posit that the three main reasons for induction continuing in Northumberland were i) unilateral support for induction by all education groups in the area; ii) operating costs not being as great because the first four years of the project had provided comprehensive written materials and had established programme policies and structure; and iii) very few probationers entered the L.E.A. hence the induction budget was far less than the earlier years of the project.

### Organisational

1. The criticism that probationers generally had for the induction activities they had experienced were that the informal or unstructured induction activities were too infrequent. For example, probationers expressed the need to watch their experienced colleagues both in their school and in other

schools teach more often. Furthermore probationers would have preferred more opportunity to schedule their own unstructured induction time hence allowing for more individualized study, planning time and discussions with other probationers (Liverpool Education Committee, 1976).

2. One interesting side benefit to the establishment of induction programmes was the increased number of visitations to the professional centres in the various L.E.A.'s by both probationers and tutors. Not only was there a greater use of instructional resources but the centres became a more visible vehicle for professional dialogue and exchange among all teachers (Taylor, 1975b).

3. Despite the release time that was afforded both tutors and probationers, timetabling compatibility, particularly at the secondary level, for supervisory meetings, tutorials, and observations was very hard to attain. Hence, the communicative and supervisory relationship between tutor and probationer was often considered after other school and curriculum administrative decisions were made (Taylor, 1976; Davis, 1979).

4. Teacher tutors expressed concern and dissatisfaction about not continuing to act in this role if their school was not assigned a probationer the following year. Evaluation data indicated that these teachers were encouraged to work with pre-service student teachers during their practicum, to offer their classrooms as observation centres for visiting probationers, and to continue to participate in teacher-tutor in-service. Unfortunately most opportunities for these programmes did not materialize.

5. School induction programmes differed according to



various factors: number of probationers, experience of tutors, size of school staff, and sophistication of staff development programmes. Hence, the L.E.A. organisational support for each school had to accommodate those differences as well as to appreciate that implementation and institutionalization of induction is a long term process (Davis, 1982).

### Summary

Induction programmes in Britain continue to be evident but the major funding, promotion, implementation and policy development regarding induction occurred in the 1970's. This chapter therefore traced the evolution of induction programmes in Britain emphasizing the initiatives that came from early research (Taylor and Dale, 1971), policy documents, i.e., James Report (D.E.S., 1972) and the nationally sponsored induction pilot schemes (D.E.S., 1976). Three unsponsored schemes were briefly described, Avon, Leeds and I.L.E.A., each identifying the significant induction design components as well as the present status of the programmes. Then the major section of the chapter provided a detailed description of the academic, governance and organisational components of both the Liverpool and Northumberland D.E.S. sponsored induction schemes. Within the organisation overview a separate description was afforded each L.E.A. relative to the initiation, implementation and institutionalization phases. Given the voluminous evaluative and research data that was summarised by British researchers on the induction programmes an overview summary of findings relevant to the context of this thesis was provided.

Overall the British induction models pioneered many of

the induction practices that would be adopted by other countries in the late 1979's and 1980's. Furthermore the continuous professional development theme was evidenced as the conceptual underpinning of the academic components of all the British programmes. However, except in a few situations, e.g., Avon, ongoing staff development practices did not maximize or even incorporate potential induction programme activities. Nevertheless the long lasting induction practices of Northumberland represent a bench mark of professional commitment in maintaining a programme that is perceived by all evaluation reports to have benefit and to validate the recommendations of the James Report. However, for induction to reach its potential in all L.E.A.s it has been evidenced that economic factors, financial resources and employment possibilities must reflect a supportive context for programme implementation.

The next descriptive review of a national induction programme portrays the Australian programmes. The same descriptive framework used in this chapter on the British models will be applied to Australia and the remaining three countries.

## Chapter 8

### INDUCTION PROGRAMMES IN AUSTRALIA

Following the British efforts to establish a national induction programme the Australian teacher educators, during the mid-seventies, undertook the challenge to incorporate teacher induction programmes in their own country. This chapter will trace the establishment of these programmes as well as examine the academic, governance and organizational components of induction that have been developed in the various states to assist beginning teachers (probationers). First a background of the contextual factors surrounding the establishment of induction programme in Australia will be highlighted.

#### Background

Between 1976 and 1978 a federally funded committee, the Education Research and Development Committee, established a research project that surveyed induction practices operating in Australia's educational system (Tisher, Fyfield, and Taylor, 1978). The project involved two components. First, a descriptive survey was undertaken to identify what was being done to support the induction of beginning teachers into the profession. Regional and local educational authorities were the major respondents of this survey. Second, a representative national sample of beginning teachers were asked how satisfied they were and what specific features of their job best characterized their first year of teaching. Responses from 700 principals and 3,000 first-year teachers offered a compre-



hensive summary of salient beliefs and personal perceptions regarding the induction practices occurring in Australia. The five outcomes of this survey summarise the contextual factors of induction prevalent at that time in Australia.

1. Employing authorities and school principals were not satisfied with university and teacher college pre-service preparation programmes.

2. Educational authorities and administrators perceived that beginning teachers needed help in adjusting to their schools and that they required practical advice with respect to classroom management and teaching strategies.

3. A significant number of aspects of teaching did not provide a level of satisfaction for more than half of the beginning teachers. Intellectual stimulation and self-actualization were two areas of concern.

4. Only a low percentage (28%) indicated satisfaction about the professional prestige they had received during the induction year (Tisher and Taylor, 1979).

5. A general belief was expressed by educators that practicing teachers have a proper role in teacher preparation.

Fueled by the generation of these survey results more effective induction was then introduced in various states and local districts throughout the country. Publication of resource books (i.e., Curriculum Center, 1979) and other research documents (i.e., Murdoch, 1978; Otto, Gasson, and Jordan, 1979) also became more evident. Hence the following description outlines what programme endeavours and activities have been undertaken in Australia since this survey was released.

### Academic Components

#### Curricular Organising Principle

Programming priorities within the curriculum organising principles of Australia induction programmes can be identified as fairly consistent throughout the various states. Whether it be in Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania, New South Wales, Northern Territories, Western or South Australia, three organising principles prevail. First, teacher educators believe that induction programmes must recognize and support both the professional and personal development of beginning teachers. Appreciating both the socialization and instructional challenges that beginning teachers confront during their first year of teaching, Australia educators aim to provide programming that will synergize both professional and personal concerns.

Second, the induction stage of teacher education is not perceived as an entity unto itself but rather a crucial development phase in the continuous education of teachers. The purposes of induction hence reflect a need to extend and enrich the teacher's experiential and knowledge base that will be built upon in successive years of in-service education.

Third, it is evident from the literature (Steinle, 1978; Tisher, 1980) that induction programming has become an inherent component of school policy in Australia. Not only do school based administrators and teachers assume supervisory and assessment responsibilities, but the syllabus of the induction programmes aims to reflect the context of the beginning teacher's classroom, school, instructional assignment, pupils and individual professional needs.

Furthermore, induction programme curriculum efforts indicate that more attention is also being afforded the affective domain within the conceptual framework of the induction programme's orientation. As more in-service activities are becoming school focussed, the induction programme can now reflect more effectively humanistic elements of the classroom, i.e., motivation, pupil self-worth and creativity within the instructional programme for beginning teachers. Furthermore, the hidden agendas of the classroom context such as differential treatment of pupils and the promotion of art, music, drama and physical education within the beginning teacher's curriculum planning are now being both monitored and supported (Tisher, 1984).

### Curricular Emphases

In establishing the framework for the curriculum emphases, the locus of learning for induction programmes within the various states generally focussed upon the experiential learning of the classroom. Given the geographical isolation of many schools from teacher centres, colleges or university campuses, beginning teachers normally pursued their studies within their own classroom and school.

The curriculum content was not mandated from school to school or state to state. Hence, conformity within the specificity of curriculum and instructional tasks was not present. However, most programmes included a breadth of thematic components. These included:

- 1) the organisation of the school and governance of the educational system,
- 2) learning and meeting the aims and objectives of the



individual's school philosophical orientation and programmes,

- 3) lesson preparation and planning,
- 4) discipline and management,
- 5) questioning and review strategies,
- 6) assessment and evaluation procedures,
- 7) motivating pupils,
- 8) teacher self-evaluation.

Furthermore, supervisory support staff are required to acquaint teachers with support services and resources as well as assist teachers to apply knowledge already acquired in pre-service programmes.

Depth of curriculum content within most induction programmes focusses upon generic instructional tasks. Tasks that beginning teachers have prioritized (Tisher, Fyfield, and Taylor, 1978) include teaching groups with a wide range of abilities; teaching specific skills, i.e., reading; devising schemes of work; discovering cognitive level at which to teach; and teaching immigrant pupils.

The design and development of the curricular emphasis within the Australian induction programmes primarily resulted from input by both state teacher education authorities as well as principals, experienced teachers and beginning teachers representing the school based priority interests. Contractual programme requirements for beginning teachers do not exist. However, respect for the new teacher's professional needs and preferences is observed by the personnel responsible for designing the academic content of district and regional conferences. The flexibility of this Australian approach to their curriculum emphasis within induction is further emphasized by

the fact that no specific instructional requirements of the beginning teacher are expected by the state educational jurisdiction. Hence, the variations of the many themes and topics presented within the supervision sessions, the meetings with staff and principals, and the workshop seminars prevent a centralized or core syllabus from developing within each state.

### Curricular Structure

The curricular structure of induction in Australia may be best described as a three phase process: orientation, adaptation and development. Each sequential phase addresses the four levels of educational experience, the classroom, the school and community, the educational system, and the profession. Within each level teachers, principals, peers, in-service supervisors and the local association representatives articulate and initiate a particular educational activity that will investigate the instructional curriculum or professional knowledge and skills required of a first year teacher. Opportunity or provision afforded the beginning teacher to contribute to the design of this educational plan would vary from school to school. However, supervisory staff are encouraged by the state educational officials to have beginning teachers:

- 1) observe other teachers' methods of teaching,
- 2) confer with other beginning teachers,
- 3) visit other schools for observation and consultation,
- 4) participate in supervisory activities on a regular basis,
- 5) investigate local educational resources,
- 6) receive written materials on conditions of employment

and school district and school goals and programme priorities.

In the Northern Territory a two week orientation programme is offered all beginning teachers prior to the beginning of the school year. Given the predominance of aboriginal children in the schools, teachers are offered workshops in ESL, basic anthropological concepts, school policies and district regulations appropriate to the territorial region. During the adaptation and development phases regional conferences are held for beginning teachers. Content of these sessions would be oriented to the beginning teachers' needs including lesson planning, managing small groups evaluation procedures, classroom management and control and examination of critical incidents in teaching (Tisher, 1980). The programme for many of these sessions emphasised generic instructional skills, programme content that was not as readily taught by the tutors in the beginning teachers' schools.

However, it is the half or one-day in-service session that is most prevalent in the various states. Group discussions and study groups concerning generic instructional themes and curriculum workshops predominate these induction sessions.

### Governance Factors

#### Policy

Governance policy regarding induction within the Australian education system is not always consistent. One main reason is that not every state educational authority has a specific departmental policy concerning induction, nor a regional or school policy from which regulations affecting probationary teachers may be developed. Due to the indivi-



duality of practice among school based induction programmes policy within various state jurisdictions are not only different but where policies are similar "behaviour of individuals and institutions as they interpret policy is different" (Dunn, 1979).

Although teacher participation in the induction programmes are generally positive, the teacher associations have not seen the efforts afforded the beginning teachers as a priority within their professional activities. In summary, the indifference appears to stem from the belief that a comprehensive in-service programme at the school based-level should benefit all teachers. Financial effort being directed at beginning teachers alone does not maximize the limited resources (Cahill, 1985). Nevertheless, state agencies continue to involve the teaching professions where ever possible in programme discussions on induction. Successful induction is perceived as a collaborative enterprise that involves all levels of the state's education programme. Hence, strong debate rests on not only how the varying stakeholders may unilaterally support induction but also what specific role each jurisdiction should or may assume. Discussions on this topic occur more noticeably in the State of Western Australia where induction programme practices are considered to be the least organised of all of the Australian states.

### Funding

Federal Government funds have been made available to the various states to develop in-service programming. However, funding for induction programmes may still be deemed arbitrary because in some states induction programme activities are

uniquely funded, whereas in some states regional funding or district budgets must allocate appropriate finances to promote induction practices. Where induction budgets do not exist, induction programme funding is reallocated out of the regular district in-service budget or the school-based staff development fund. In most circumstances the regional in-service committee of each state supervises the disbursement and programme priority allotments. Funding would be allocated to different induction practices such as residential programmes, training sessions for supervisors, beginning teacher school visitations requiring substitute coverage, and production of handbooks and other written materials.

#### Assessment and Certification

Since 1973 principals have assumed responsibility for the formal recommendation of beginning teachers for certification. For example, in New South Wales the period of induction is one year upon which time the principal recommends the beginning teacher to the state educational authority for certification. Responsibility for developing the specific induction programme, as it is for curriculum and school organisation, does reside with the school principal and the school staff. In the rural area the role of the principal becomes even more crucial given the lack of supervisory personnel. In other states such as Tasmania the vice principals assume much of the coordinating role of the school-based induction programmes.

In some states the Beginning Teacher Counselling Service (B.T.C.S.) provides the recommendations for certification of the probationary teachers. Each B.T.C.S. is coordinated by a regional director who monitors the development of the induc-

tion programme activities.

### Organisational Components

#### Initiation and Implementation

The initiation and implementation phases of induction programmes in Australia are most amorphous. This is due to the individual state authorities establishing induction programme activities in a variety of formats. Some states such as New South Wales and Tasmania began their programmes by offering courses for school executives who were then requested, but not necessarily required, to design induction programmes for the beginning teachers in their schools. In other states the introduction of induction began through a probationer support programme, i.e., Queensland, that brought beginning teachers together in a residential setting. Additional programming initiatives that were fundamental to the implementation of the programme included:

1. establishment of a teaching skills analysis course, a course designed to give supervisors the knowledge and skills involved in providing supervisory, observation and analytical support for the beginning teacher. Checklists for supervision and classroom observation techniques are discussed and assimilated for use by the supervisors during these sessions;

2. preparation of a handbook for supervisors that provided reference materials that complemented the teaching skills analysis courses. In some other states the handbook also contains guidelines relating to district services, orientation to school, first weeks in the classroom and an overview of the induction programmes that are available to beginning teachers during the year. Normally these handbooks may be a



generic reference for all participants involved in the induction programme;

3. appointment of full-time consultants, one primary and one secondary, to organise the induction programme activities for the state;

4. appointment of part-time consultants to lead in-service sessions;

5. production of video tapes to assist in the analysis of generic teaching skills;

6. participation of beginning teachers located in the rural schools in residential seminars prior to the beginning of the school year;

7. pairing of new teachers with experienced teachers that would allow for demonstration sessions;

8. application of audio visual feedback for beginning teachers;

9. reduced instructional loads for beginning teachers. In Victoria, for instance, beginning secondary teachers receive a reduced workload of three hours. Also instructional modifications are afforded beginning teachers by assigning them smaller classes, providing duplicate course assignments and giving fewer administrative or supervisory duties;

10. development of a beginning teacher counsellor service that provides coordinating services for beginning teachers within the appropriate state and prepares reports for the Education Department and the pre-service training institutions on the progress of the probationary teachers. Regular visitations (a minimum of three a year) are undertaken by the counsellors who have no evaluative role. Regional centres such

as those in Western Australia provide an advisory resource team of experienced teachers that travel to the various regions of the state to offer workshops and counselling assistance to beginning teachers, supervisors and school-based administrators;

11. formalization of teacher tutor assignments that are given to experienced teachers in some states, i.e., Tasmania. Generally these teacher tutors are responsible for two probationers and they receive approximately two/three hours per week to supervise and work with the probationers;

12. introduction of evening seminars and socials for beginning teachers in some states, i.e. Victoria. The informality of these programmes is most popular and these sessions are able to attract teachers from both urban and outlying schools within the respective region;

13. pairing of second-year teachers with new teachers. This programme practice provides for the beginning teacher reassurance during the induction process as well as information and basic resources based on the second year teacher's experiences the year before;

14. provision for in-service coordinators for individual schools to attend special workshop programmes (ten days per year of which five days are an initial residential programme). During these workshop special sessions focus upon the induction of new teachers as well as examine strategies for involving new teachers within staff development programmes of the respective schools.

### Institutionalization

Institutionalization of the Australian induction programmes may be best summarised as an active but not necessarily an integral programme component of teacher education within each state or district. During the 1980's two major factors have offset universal institutionalization of induction. One major reason is that a declining school age population has resulted in fewer beginning teachers being required for appointment. Hence, incentives for induction programmes falter, but more importantly other in-service issues surface such as retraining of teachers and the reallocation of teachers from secondary schools into primary schools. Furthermore, not only are beginning teachers not being hired so frequently, but those who are being employed may only receive short-term contracts. Hence induction phases of orientation, adaptation, and development activities are greatly hampered or minimally afforded beginning teachers.

The second reason is that overall economic problems facing Australia like other industrial nations have been translated into shrinking budgets for education. Therefore funding priorities in education necessitate that available funds must be directed towards the maintenance of programming rather than expansion. Furthermore, funding priorities generally receive political support when programmes directly affect and involve pupils rather than the professional endeavours such as induction that directly affect teachers (Cahill, 1985).

A more detailed examination of the institutionalization factors facing Australian induction programmes is highlighted in the following section on programme evaluation.



### Programme Evaluation

Assessment of the various state induction programmes has primarily been derived from regional reports provided by the induction counselling service or regional directors. The counsellors play an important role in the evaluation process of the induction programmes examining such topics as beginning teachers' experiences and the residual effects and perspectives of beginning teachers of their pre-service programming. The results of these surveys are made available to local and state officials and eventually the national educational department officials. Conference documentation (Tisher, 1980) from national meetings focussing upon induction has also assisted in examining the various practices that are prevalent in each state. Political, educational and institutional factors have been assimilated and recommendations have resulted.

In general, most personnel directly involved in an induction programme have been pleased that the activities have fostered an improved introduction for beginning teachers' entry into the profession. Probationary teachers cite supportive teachers and principals as important resources for their programming and instructional needs. Meanwhile principals realize that greater involvement with these beginning teachers and a more meaningful supervisory relationship greatly enhances the teachers' contributions to the staff, pupils and school in their continuing association with the school.

Conference activities at regional centres are regarded as important, but one drawback has been the absence of participation by the sponsoring tutors and important members of the supervisory team. Opportunities for probationers and supervi-

sors to jointly attend workshops enhances the understanding of the beginning teacher's induction activities by all personnel involved. More funding for this process has been considered as a top priority. Other programmatic enhancements (Tisher, op. cit.) that are being addressed are:

1. further programme development in improving the quality of training programmes for the tutors. Quality supervision and counselling induction practices are seen as directly correlating to the quality of the supervisory personnel;
2. improved dissemination of research and evaluation information on probationary teachers and induction programmes. Regional, national and international documentation are to be introduced into the discussions regarding induction policy development for Australia. Research topics such as programme effectiveness, benefits of centralizing or maintaining a decentralized induction programme, and examining and validating different forms of induction in-service for supervisors are all possible research activities;
3. identification of what induction practices must focus upon given the competition for the decreasing amount of funds allotted for induction. Cost effective measures are being regarded as pragmatically needed but also philosophically appropriate given the apprehension of committing resources to a costly institutionalized centralized national programme;
4. articulation with pre-service training institutions on the programmatic relationships of pre-service practica and induction programming. Whether pre-service and induction programme components are designed sequentially or intrinsically

so as to enhance each beginning teacher according to his own progress, greater planning and programme design discussions must be undertaken. Involvement in these discussions should be school-based and regional supervisory personnel, representatives of the teacher colleges and universities, tutors and probationary teachers.

5. phasing out the term probationer. Given that the term is perceived by some as pejorative and given that some beginning teachers obtain a positive certification assessment prior to the completion of the first year of teaching, the term of probationer is not being used as pervasively;

6. greater involvement of college and university personnel in the organisation, supervision and instructional components of the induction programme. This initiative would not only further extend the collaborative opportunities within the induction process of one of the important stakeholders but also university personnel would be able to pursue research studies and instructional activities with their ex-students. Redundancy of faculty members in some institutions where pre-service enrollments are low has been suggested as good reason to promote greater involvement of these individuals in field-based professional activities;

7. preparation of a comprehensive annotated bibliography that would include handbooks, brochures, orientation packages, workshop curricula, supervisory and data gathering information that would represent all the various efforts of the state induction programmes. Such a production at the national level might enhance the opportunity to provide more consistency and equal opportunity for beginning teachers to participate in induction programmes no matter where they are located in



Australia;

8. more evenly distributed induction orientation, adaptation, and development activities over the course of the induction year. Despite the efforts to provide both school-based and regional residential workshops, many of the induction activities occur more at the beginning of the academic year than regularly sequenced over the course of the year. Too often beginning teachers are not fully apprised of what assistance they might best receive from induction programming until later in the year when they become more aware of their strengths and limitations as well as their pupils' instructional needs.

It should be noted that much of the above information was either outlined in the national conference proceedings (Tischer, 1980) or the ongoing recommendations of the National Teacher Education Review Committee (Board of Teacher Education, Queensland, 1981).

### Summary

The Australian induction programmes are not only diverse but they also vary in the level and prominence within the context of the overall in-service and staff development activities of state and regional educational authorities. This chapter illustrated this overall diversity by describing the numerous activities that were evident in the academic, governance and organisation of the various states' induction programmes. The enhancement of professional preparation of beginning teachers, or probationers as defined in Australia, is described as the main aim of the programme.

The chapter identified that three curricular principles

seem to comprise all induction programming activities within Australia. These factors include support for both professional and personal development of beginning teachers, the role of induction as a crucial development phase in the ongoing professional development of teachers from pre-service to in-service, and the important role school-based personnel play in the orientation, supervision and certification of beginning teachers.

The chapter also emphasized the rural nature of Australia's educational system and the modifications to induction programme endeavours that have resulted in this country. Individualization of beginning teacher programme priorities within school-based programming and the promotion of residential regional workshops are two such innovations that have been introduced. Because of the fluctuating evolution and eclectic characteristics of Australian induction programmes, initiation, implementation and institutionalization phases of the organisational process were more difficult to identify. However, because of the ongoing evaluative procedures and the plenary national and regional meetings induction programmes continue to receive support by most teacher education stakeholders. The chapter concluded by identifying eight components of induction that continue to require attention within the Australian state education system.

The next review of induction programmes applies to Australia's southern hemisphere neighbour, New Zealand.

## Chapter 9

### INDUCTION PROGRAMMES IN NEW ZEALAND

Induction programmes in New Zealand have been a national initiative. Although regional, district, and in some cases individual schools have developed localized materials, the Department of Education in New Zealand provides an overall support network of finance and policy guidelines to assist the development of the programmes. This chapter will highlight the evolution of the New Zealand programme using the same descriptive framework and matrix of factors as used in the previous chapters.

#### Background

In early 1983 Regulation 66 of the 1976 Education Regulations was amended by New Zealand's Director-General of Education. Following an agreement between the Department of Education (D.E.) and the Post Primary Teachers Association a scheme for providing "advice and guidance" for List A teachers (beginning teachers) was introduced to teacher education programming in New Zealand (D.E., 1983). Essentially, teachers appointed to their first full-time teaching assignment, either in a relieving appointment for one term or in a continuous contract, would receive on-going induction support within a formalized induction programme. The motivation to improve teacher education in New Zealand culminated from various documentation, conference reports, and committee dialogue among teacher education agencies. This precipitated the 1973 document "The Continuing Education of Teachers and the Future Role



of Teachers Colleges prepared by the Advisory Council on Education Planning" (Advisory Council, 1973). This report encouraged educators to focus more attention on supporting new teachers in their first years as practicing professionals. Furthermore, induction practices were to exemplify an orientation to teacher education that would encourage career-long professional development.

Beginning teacher studies in 1975 and 1977 identified that representatives of teacher education constituencies were willing to collaborate in addressing the circumstances of the beginning teacher's induction into the school and classroom setting. The Campbell Report (1977) analysed findings from 2,000 educators including 600 beginning teachers and established among other things that:

- i) beginning teachers (year one teachers) felt no significant growth in competence during their first two years in the classroom and

- ii) that beginning teachers experienced little in-service and guidance from colleagues, supervisory staff and administrators.

By 1978 the Department of Education in Wellington printed in their circular, "the Education News", that induction of teachers was most unsatisfactory and suggested that teacher education should be a "continuing process from initial preparation, through induction and on to in-service training" (Education News, 1978, p. 5). Murdoch (1979) analysing the documentation on induction concluded that "the message for schools is clear . . . . Teachers in general need to recognize and accept the continuing nature of teacher education and senior staff in particular to recognize the particular needs

of beginning teachers" (p. 6). Furthermore, the individuality and interests of beginning teachers "must be respected and their strengths used" (p. 6).

Therefore, by 1979 the Department of Education was recommending that

"10.4 Induction programmes should be mandatory in all institutions where the registration process applies

and

10.5 Provisions should be made to support an induction programme (e.g., staffing entitlement) should be used solely for that purpose and not transferred to other needs." (Department of Education, New Zealand, 1979, p. 41).

The following description of New Zealand's induction programme exemplifies the programme design and operation as outlined in government documents from the Department of Education in Wellington between 1980 and 1982. Induction programme practices reflective of school districts in urban centres such as Auckland, regional towns such as Hamilton, and rural school areas such as the Taranaki School District centred in New Plymouth, comprise the programme data.

### Academic Components

#### Curricular Organising Principles

The curriculum organising principles addressed in all documentation, particularly the Department of Education information (1979, 1981, 1982, 1983), suggest that induction programmes promote teacher development as the fundamental principle.

"The contribution of the induction programme should be seen primarily as giving a particular local focus to the more general pre-service foundations, to give practical and necessary guidance and support to the individual beginning teacher, and to encourage and strengthen the development of the personal qualities and professional skills of the teacher" (D.E., 1979, 10.9).

Therefore specific curriculum objectives of the programme include: personal professional qualities, relationships with pupils, planning and preparation, subject competence, teaching techniques and class management, and contribution towards work of school as a whole. Although demonstration of subject competence and instructional methodology is important (D.E., 1983, R.66-1-1) the induction programme aimed at giving increased mastery and confidence within the context of the initial appointment, whereby continuing education practices will be provided following the probationary year that will complement the overall induction programme activities. Appendix B outlines a sample induction programme prepared by the New Zealand Department of Education.

### Curricular Emphases

The curricular emphases and its related continua emphasize an experiential learning that is broad in curriculum design, teacher oriented, and a programme of studies that are reflective of the individual beginning teacher's needs and classroom environment.

"The framing of induction programming should be dependent on the nature of the teaching sector, but broad programme outlines should cover such topics as institution, class-



room society, content, evaluation, self-analysis, and development." (D.E.S. Wellington, 1979, p. 43).

Furthermore, the principal and tutor design the induction programme with the beginning teacher. This programme design receives its curricular structure from the Department of Education (1983); however, interpretation and adaptation characterize the advice and guidance provided on a discretionary basis thereby recognizing the personal and professional qualities of the beginning professional.

### Curricular Structure

Specifically, the curricular structure provides for a myriad of activities. The beginning teacher's timetable, given their .8 teaching assignment, allows for regular induction sessions, seminar meetings with peer groups of fellow teachers, or assisting agencies. Furthermore, visits to other institutions are encouraged and complement specific in-service courses that may be offered in the context of induction. This total programme is complemented by resource persons that include teacher college lecturers, advisors, senior principals, classroom teachers and beginning teachers (second and third year). Training for tutors, advisors and inspectors (D.E., 1983, 10-12) is expected and provided by the Department of Education in conjunction with the universities and teacher college personnel (Hogan, 1983).

## Governance Factors

### Policy and Funding

The collective focus in promoting induction programmes in New Zealand by professional teacher groups, principal associations, the teacher education college and university representatives, and the government's Department of Education officials was instrumental in the adoption of the "Year One Teachers Program". Doyle (1981) believes that the high priority given by the Department of Education in 1980 through the Minister and the Director General ensured that induction practices would be adopted by each school district and their individual schools. Hence, the 1979 recommendations 10.4 and 10.5 mentioned on page 180 demonstrated the Government's intention to support induction programming, thereby initiating the activities of the schools to provide induction activities for the year one teachers. However, another recommendation recognizes that the teaching load for the beginning teacher should be .8. Hence the .2 allocation of time guarantees the beginning teacher to pursue continuous professional development following the mandatory three-year teaching diploma programme. However, by the Department of Education introducing the advice and guidance Regulation 66 within the School Act for list "A" teachers in 1983 the institutionalization of the governance process was realized. Funding allotments now were guaranteed directly to schools, professional development activities now were guaranteed for each beginning teacher.

### Assessment and Certification

Assessment of the beginning teachers progress is performed by the induction liaison inspector. However, besides

certification and classification the liaison inspector carries out three other governance tasks.

i) coordinates the various agencies involved in the induction process;

ii) supplies information on courses; support services; curriculum development; Department policy by-laws, rules and regulations; and on the rights and obligations of beginning teachers and

iii) works with the teachers college on the appointment and continuing training of beginning teachers.

It should also be noted that beginning teachers in New Zealand enter their probationary year according to three possible levels of qualifications. These levels are i) Teachers' College Diploma (T.C.D.); ii) T.C.D. plus six-ninths of a degree; and iii) T.C.D. plus a complete degree. However, despite variations in liberal arts and liberal science background all beginning teachers have received a similar pre-service education when undertaking their three year T.C.D.

At the conclusion of the induction year certification is then awarded year one teachers. Based on a recommendation from the liaison inspector in consultation with the principal and supervisory staff members the beginning teacher receives the "Trained Teachers Certificate" (National Education, 1982, p. 20).

During their induction year the beginning teacher is given full professional responsibility, salary, fringe benefits, and an opportunity to join the New Zealand teachers union (N.Z.E.I.). However, if the beginning "teacher at any time considers that an instruction or direction from the principal is unreasonable, the matter may be referred to the



District Senior Inspector (D.S.I.) for resolution" (National Education, 1982, p. 20).

Supervisory teachers within Regulation 66 must be appointed by the principal to assume full advice and guidance responsibilities. These supervisory teachers must keep a systematic record of observation sessions and counselling meetings provided to the beginning teacher. A minimum of two full-period observation visits must be made by the supervisory teacher of the beginning teacher's instruction. At the conclusion of these lesson observations the teacher is to receive a full and constructive written report outlining strength and weaknesses observed. One formal visit by both principal and liaison inspector are all that is required by the legislative act.

### Organisational Components

#### Initiation

Overall management and initiation of the induction programme in New Zealand were basically facilitated because the Department of Education expected all schools to keep a percentage of their teaching jobs for teachers in their first year of teaching (Cross, 1981, p. 2). Furthermore, liaison inspectors were identified in the induction programme to be both responsible for teacher assessment and programme implementation.

Given the supportive environment of collaboration among Department officials, district administrators, principals, experienced teachers and the N.Z.E.I., all three stages of education change as described by Berman's model were attended to within the organisation and implementation of the induction programme.

Collective endorsement by all teacher education agencies to support the induction programme led to the Department of Education's plan of implementation and institutionalization.

### Implementation

During the implementation stage various organisational activities take place. They include:

i) Placements for probationary appointments are initiated over six months prior to the beginning of the school year. Also, these placements are made after joint discussions with the beginning teachers, the school district personnel and personnel of the graduates' teachers college.

ii) Student teachers are "made aware during their time at teachers' college of the place induction and in-service programmes will play in the overall pattern of their training" (Department of Education, 1979 - 10.14).

iii) Distribution of informational material is provided by the various national professional groups within the teachers association, i.e., the Kindergarten teachers distribute a supportive reference document to all Year One teachers and principals.

iv) The N.Z.E.I. provides a "beginners briefing" circular that includes professional policy and governance information as well as instructional ideas for using the .2 allotted induction programme time during the probationary time (National Education, 1982).

v) "Area co-ordinating committees are established to replace the multitude of in-service committees - to advise on and approve programmes, to arrange training for those involved

in induction and to allocate resources" (Department of Education, 1979 - 10.6).

vi) All districts welcome beginning teachers by providing various print information, whereas principals in each school identify the coordinating teacher who becomes responsible for the induction programme.

vii) All schools identify senior staff to act as tutors for the beginning teachers.

### Institutionalization

Following the implementation of the induction programme in 1980 New Zealand proceeded to incorporate induction as a part of its teacher education professional framework. Since that time the various organisational components have been refined and eventually institutionalized within the national educational system. Various provisions within the .2 induction personnel allotment have assisted the continuing development of year one teachers in pursuing an individualized programme. Released time gives the beginning teacher a variety of professional activities that includes observation of tutors and other colleagues, visits to other schools, as well as regular seminar meetings, supervisory conferences, and individual preparation and study.

The Department of Education (1981) continues to prepare specialized informational materials for principals, tutor teachers, liaison inspectors, teacher college personnel and year one teachers. Each document emphasizes two themes: i) no two beginning teachers are the same; and ii) teacher education and professional development must continue after graduation from teachers college. Furthermore the N.Z.E.I. promotes these



perspectives by working with the Department of Education to ensure the .2 staffing allotment is effectively used (Waldron, 1981). Each school determines how it will develop their induction programmes as well as how it will use the various resource personnel for supervision, workshop instruction, and consultancy meetings when working with the beginning teachers.

### Programme Evaluation

Regularized evaluation procedures within the New Zealand induction programme have provided a consistent review of the benefits and problems afforded both beginning teachers and the implementation of the induction programmes. Furthermore research by Battersby (1980a and 1980b), Doyle (1981), Battersby (1982), and Jacquier (1982) have highlighted the various components of this induction scheme and recommended issues for further study and examination.

Battersby (1980a, 1980b) followed a group of 38 beginning primary teachers through their first year of teaching. "Data was systematically collected not only from the 38 teachers, but also from their principals, senior teachers, colleagues and inspectors" (1980a, p. 2).

Upon examining the beginning teachers' perspectives of the helpfulness of the liaison inspector, Battersby (1980b) noted four conclusions. First, the duration of the two formal inspectorial visits were generally only 30 to 60 minutes in length. Hence both visits were not long enough to provide a formal supervision session where pre-conferencing and post-conferencing would be included. Second, "about 50% of the beginners indicated, that on each of the two major visits, the Inspector was of some help, while approximately the same

number of teachers said that he was of little or no help on both occasions" (1980b, p. 2). Battersby concluded that little impact by the liaison inspectors would be made upon the improvement of the beginning teachers' performance. Also, the quality of assessment made by the inspector on the individual year one teacher was minimal. Hence, the questions of the inspector's role and in turn the validity of benefits accruing from the inspectorial visits were raised by the research.

Third, Battersby concluded that induction programmes can be made a worthwhile process and benefit the beginning teacher if the supervising teacher is qualified. Qualifications include curriculum knowledge, professional regulations and certification knowledge, supervision experience, and communication skills. However, the research indicated that the supervisory teacher and principal can be instrumental in helping the beginning teacher during the induction year in "detecting and predicting reality shock and then countering it with various strategies (e.g., support and encouragement)" (1980a, p. 6).

Doyle (1981) identified two major variables for good induction practice based on the evaluation data of New Zealand the induction programmes. He contends that the principal and the school staff are instrumental in influencing the positive socialization and professional development of the beginning teacher. One variable is "the leadership qualities of the principal reflected in the climate of the school and the readiness of staff to accept and support" (p. 2). The other variable is the "potential within the school to give assistance and develop a suitable programme using .2 release time" (p. 2). Doyle posits that this advice and guidance must be

ongoing throughout the beginning teacher's probationary year including early visitations and discussions with the principal and staff before the school year begins. "School based courses, team planning and personal study afford a stimulus for growth and a range of opportunities to become relevant" (p. 5) for the beginning teacher. In turn, these activities must be complemented by good supervision practices. Doyle (op. cit.) distinguishes two roles for the supervisor in working with the beginning teacher. First, he sees the supervising teacher assuming a "confirming role". This dominant role is particularly helpful in the earlier phases of the beginning teachers' instruction where the supervisory teacher confirms successful practice, builds up confidence and assists the beginning teacher with self-evaluating techniques. From the national courses evaluative data Doyle (op. cit.) notes that there was strong support from beginning teachers for this kind of observation. The beginning teachers "pointed out also that they appreciated the wider more normative opinion of inspectors in this connection" (p. 6). The other important supervising function teachers may assume is the clinical role. Utilizing clinical supervision techniques Doyle observes that objective and supportive feedback based on good observation data will complement the "confirming role". He posits that "the aim of this form of observation is to foster development and change by providing accurate information for the teacher" (p. 7).

In summary, Doyle sees the organisational health of the school and the supportiveness of the school staff as making a significant difference to the instructional and professional



growth of the beginning teacher during their induction year. Release time for the beginning teacher must be provided with various instructional options and the supervisory staff must be "sensitive to needs arising unexpectedly as well as the changing cycle of needs throughout the school year" (p. 9).

Battersby (1982) believes that more preparation can be provided for the beginning teacher during the last year of their teacher diploma programme. He envisions that each university should provide a sociology of education course that focuses on the first year experiences that beginning teachers will encounter. "Courses of this type, which can also serve a useful purpose in linking theory to practice, can provide a vehicle whereby students become more aware . . . <and> it may encourage them to re-examine some of their own expectations about themselves as teachers" (p. 5).

In 1982 The Department of Education (Jaquiery, 1982) released the summary of evaluation data that was conducted throughout the country. In general, the document highlighted the positive aspects that the New Zealand induction programme had provided first year teachers. However, various difficulties had been identified by beginning teachers and supervisory personnel. This included staff changes that occurred among induction supervisory staff during the school year. Ongoing formative supervisory relationships consequently were hampered when teachers moved from one school to another. Some people felt that the induction programme was too generalized and the .2 staffing time allotment was not effectively used. More involvement of the various teachers colleges could be also encouraged hopefully enhancing the quality of supervisory practices demonstrated by the tutors. In fact, this point lead

to another concern and that was the lack of teacher relief days for the tutors to be given further training in the area of supervision. The Department of Education claimed that this lack of training may cause the resistance of new ideas displayed by some tutors and supervisory staff in general. Consequently "until senior teachers accept the validity of their training role, some loss of efficiency is to be expected" (Jaquiery, p. 12).

One evaluative factor worth reporting is the fact that a large percentage of teachers do not continue teaching once they have finished their probationary year because permanent teaching jobs are hard to secure (Cross, 1981, p. 2). Naturally professional development practices that are intended to promote continuing education for beginning teachers are compromised. Substantive benefits to long-term consequences for improving teacher education are therefore qualified.

### Summary

This chapter has examined the benefits and limitations of the academic orientation, governance operatives and the organisational components relative to the New Zealand programme.

Research evidence indicates that induction programmes in New Zealand have become a national priority within teacher education programme reform. Recognition by the Department of Education through supportive legislation, i.e., release time for beginning teachers and tutors, collaborative support by all stakeholders in teacher education, and establishment of school-based induction programmes that recognize the individual needs of each beginning teacher, all favourably characterize induction programmes in New Zealand. Furthermore, the

continuous professional development orientation is inherent in the curricular organising principle and the complementary curricular emphases and structure. However, evaluative documentation does point out limitations in the programme emphasizing the need to provide more concrete "advice and guidance" through improved supervision practices among supervisory staff. Also a further problem exists with the New Zealand programme, namely the lack of jobs for second year teachers.

The next chapter examines the induction programmes of the United States.



## Chapter 10

### INDUCTION PROGRAMMES IN THE UNITED STATES

In the last five years no other country has initiated induction programmes with such visibility as the United States. Approximately one third of the U.S. States have adopted a formalized induction programme or are incorporating a beginning teacher programme within their in-service programme initiatives. This chapter will provide a brief overview of induction programmes that have been introduced to various state educational systems. The unique characteristics of these programmes will be highlighted. However, to investigate the academic, governance and organisational components more thoroughly one specific U.S. induction programme, the Florida State-Beginning Teacher Program, has been selected.

#### Background

One common characteristic that reflects the development of teacher education programme initiatives in the United States over the last fifteen years is the performance-based model. Joyce's (1975) review of teacher education in the U.S. suggests that educators view teachers as an individual system that demonstrates an integrated set of behaviours which are coherently related to each other. Conceptualization of the factors that comprises such a model has resulted from i) empirical study on effective teaching as it applies to the analysis of teacher behaviour; ii) a consensus by professionals of what constitutes the acumen of a professional teacher; and iii) selection of a theoretical set of criteria

from which a teacher's performance may be analysed or deductively constructed. Joyce suggests that conceptualizing and implementing such criteria has become a fundamental focus within the development of the induction programmes in the US.

For many teacher educators the performance-based movement has attempted to improve teacher education by redefining the orientation of teacher preparation by encouraging pre-service and in-service programmes to be amalgamated through induction. Upon examination of the various induction programmes established recently in the U.S. the development of these models has in good measure utilized system procedures encompassing educational theory, application of empirical study and a consensus of political and professional perspectives. Figure 11 (p. 196) describes the basic data of all induction programmes in the U.S. (Defino and Hoffman, 1984). Four examples of these programmes that have been developed in various state jurisdictions are now presented.

### Georgia

The induction programme in Georgia, the longest running of the U.S. state mandated programmes, was established in 1978. This performance-based certification programme encompasses 14 competencies with each competency being defined by two to five performance indicators. The induction programme format is perceived as an on-the-job assessment focussing on teachers' capabilities to organise, plan, and implement instruction as well as to manage the classroom and relate to students. Seventeen regional assessment centers staffed with experienced classroom teachers orient new teachers to the assessment process as well as select the beginning teacher's

Figure 11

Summary of U.S. Induction Programmes - 1984

	Induction program	Mandated	Goals	Years of operation	Teachers' involvement	Orientation days	List of skills	First Year teaching manual	Funding source	Amount annually	Monitoring and evaluation	Numbers of new credentials
Alaska	+			7+	1 yr	-	+	+	T	-	-	
Arizona	++	++	+	0	up to 2 yr.	-	+	-	F/S	1000/ tchr	+	5000
Florida	+	+	+	1	1 yr.	+	+	+	S	2.7 mil.	+	6000
Georgia	+	+	+	3-5	var.	-	+	+	S	3.5 mil.	+	6000
Kentucky	++	++										2800
Nebraska	+			1	1 yr.							7500
North Carolina	++		+	1	1 yr. +		+	+	S	-	-	3000
Oklahoma	+	+	+	1	var.	-	-	-	S	5 mil.	+	15000
Oregon	++		+	1	var.	-	-	-	S	15 mil.	-	1500
South Carolina	+	+	+	0	var.	+	+	-	S	-	+	3000
Virginia	++	++	+	0	2 yr.	-	-	+	S	-	+	
West Virginia	-		+	5-7	var.	-	-	-	D	-	+	2300

\* being proposed, planned, or piloted

F = Federal  
S = State  
D = District  
T = Teacher



assessment team. This supervisory and evaluative group includes administrators, teachers and university personnel. They receive 50 hours of assessment training that includes clinical supervision, communication and data gathering activities. Teachers are given three years or six assessment opportunities to demonstrate proficiency in all 14 competencies. Upon completion of the induction programme the teacher receives a renewable performance-based teaching certificate. For most beginning teachers (75%) successful completion of the assessment process occurs at the end of the second assessment or at the end of the first year of teaching. The Georgia Department of Education finances staff development programmes based on needs of teachers identified through the on-the-job assessment. The local district coordinates these programmes. "Thus, first year assessment becomes a vehicle that allows teachers to improve the teaching skills acquired in their preparation program to develop new skills and techniques" (McDaniel, 1985, p. 171). In summary, the commitment of the Georgia State Legislature is evidenced by a \$3.5 million fund that is directed towards the operation of this programme annually.

### Oklahoma

The Oklahoma State Legislature aproved a bill in 1980 that recommended that a staff development programme would be present in all school districts. Furthermore within that programme an entry-year assistance programme for beginning teachers, of at least one year but no more than two years, would be established. Hence new teachers in Oklahoma, called entry-year teachers, have full teaching responsibility in the

appropriate grade level of their training and receive full salary. Each beginning teacher receives a mentor along with the principal and a professor from the local university as their entry-year assistance committee. This supervisory team must provide ongoing support and guidance throughout the beginning teacher's first year and make a recommendation for permanent certification. As Wisniewski (1982) suggests "if we view the three-person committee as being representative of the profession, i.e., teachers, administrators, and teacher trainers, the law in effect moves control of entry to the profession" (p. 63). Furthermore, the staff development legislation guarantees that beginning teachers will continue with mandated professional development programmes in subsequent years of teaching. The original grant of \$4.7 million not only places funding directly into the districts' first-year teachers and staff development programmes, but it also seconds professors from the universities "to seriously participate on committees and forge new links with the field" (Wisniewski, p. 65). In summary, by 1984 after three years of development more rigorous certification standards of performance criteria were established by the State Board of Education (Newton, 1985). The content of the programme emphasizes human relations, teaching and assessment, classroom management, professionalism and meaningful parental input.

#### North Carolina

Schlechty (1985), one of the designers of the North Carolina induction programme, emphasizes that the aim of this State's programme is "to develop the capacity of new teachers to comply with the system's performance expectations." Hence

the induction programme, that includes 14 expectations of performance competency, is to be attained during the first years of teaching but also is required to be maintained in subsequent years. All new teachers are designated as provisional teachers and initially are asked only to demonstrate the knowledge and classroom skills via a staged entry process. Through a classroom observation system based on the effective teaching literature and through formative supervision beginning teachers receive theoretical and practical training from an assigned mentor, experienced teachers, and school-based administrators. However, assessment of the beginning teachers' progress is made by external evaluators who make summative evaluations on the readiness of the beginning teacher to move onto the next stage of induction. Peer support groups who do not comprise any members of the advisory or assessment cadre meet regularly outside of school hours to assist beginning teachers through their induction experiences. In Charlotte-Mecklenburg District this staged entry process continues for another year. However, during the second year, rather than using performance-based criteria, the teachers evaluation is based on goal-oriented activities. However, supervision and assessment procedures continue in conjunction with staff professional in-service sessions and action-oriented curriculum and research activities. For example, second year provisional teachers are asked to demonstrate proficiency in additional competencies, i.e., teacher-made tests and effective communication but also are able to attend in-service workshops which will assist them in applying these instructional tasks. Finally, as in Oklahoma and Georgia, additional education funding was approved by the state legislature for induction



programmes rather than reallocating money from other teacher education areas. This amounted to about \$2 million.

Florida State - Beginning Teacher Programme (F.B.T.P.)

During the 1970's the State of Florida began to examine the quality of their public and private school education programmes and the credentials of the state's teaching profession. Given that the quality of their education programming at this time ranked in the bottom quarter percentile, in comparison to other American states, in student achievement legislators became most anxious to see the status of education improved in Florida schools (Morelli, 1983). This high political profile that education received initiated the development of teacher centres, competency testing, mainstreaming and curriculum reform in subject areas such as reading, grammar, mathematics and science at all grade levels. Substantial financial assistance was similarly offered to in-service and upgrading programmes for the state's certificated teachers. However, in 1978 the Florida Office of Teacher Education encouraged the college and university pre-service programmes to offer early practicum experiences including a year-long internship prior to the teachers' graduation. However, this programme initiative to improve the credentials of beginning teachers prior to entry into the profession was still perceived as inadequate.

Several educational arguments were then presented to the state legislators to establish the F.B.T.P. The major rationale goals and programme content of the F.B.T.P. were prepared by a state-wide coalition steering committee of professional educators that included school district personnel, faculty

from public and private universities and colleges, and state education officials (Florida Office of Teacher Education, 1982). In summary their rationale for the F.B.T.P. was:

- a) increasing complex demands of skill and knowledge placed upon teachers and the school in the 1980's;
- b) research on teaching suggests that teachers must be expected to employ professional skill competently and knowledgably in the classroom;
- c) educational structures and practices have not significantly changed in schools and pre-service programmes in the past thirty years;
- d) public accountability of teachers has become a key expectation upon school country boards and state legislators;
- e) traditional four years of teacher preparation is considered insufficient, but universities are unable to afford the costs of additional pre-service programming;
- f) pre-service programmes have not successfully addressed the beginning teacher's difficult phase of the initial months and/or years in the profession;
- g) a major reason for teachers leaving the profession is the lack of formal pre-service support during the induction period;
- h) quality control of the teachers entering the profession does not rest solely with pre-service education but also in-service education.

Hence, during 1981 the issue of certification standards of teachers was addressed by requiring all teachers to participate in a year-long beginning teacher programme prior to official state certification. This beginning teacher programme became effective in July 1982 (Florida Office of Teacher Education, 1982). An examination and analysis of this beginning teacher programme will now follow.

## Academic Components

### Curricular Organising Principle

The underlying curricular organising principle within the F.B.T.P. is a good example of a performance-based teacher education orientation. Six knowledge-based domains representing various instructional competencies (Figure 12, p. 203) were selected as representative of a comprehensive survey of research on teacher effectiveness (Florida Office of Teacher Education, 1982). These competencies are referred to as the "Florida 24 Generic Teaching Competencies" and are used not only in the F.B.T.P. but also as competency guidelines for all teacher assessment within the State of Florida. In essence, the F.B.T.P. was not only a vehicle to introduce the generic competencies to beginning teachers but also to increase the competency of experienced teachers and other support personnel in the use of a performance measurement system. Hence beginning teachers are placed within an instructional curriculum orientation that places major emphasis on their attainment of specific skills and competencies. The determining factor of these teachers reaching a second year in the teaching profession is the achievement of these skills and competencies.

### Curricular Emphases

The curricular emphases within the four continua indicate that experiential learning in the classroom is the primary context of their instructional programme. Because beginning teachers are given a complete teaching assignment, they have little opportunity for specialized induction activities outside their classroom.

The depth of curriculum content is best illustrated with



Figure 12

Florida Beginning Teacher Programme:  
Knowledge Domains and Generic Competencies

Six Domains of Teacher Behaviour

- 1. Planning
- 2. Management of Student Conduct
- 3. Instructional Organisation and Development
- 4. Presentation of Subject Matter
- 5. Communication
- 6. Evaluation

Competencies

- |                              |  |
|------------------------------|--|
| 1. Oral Communication        | 13. Presents Directions                  |
| 2. Writing Ability           | 14. Classroom Tests                      |
| 3. Listening Comprehension   | 15. Materials: Routines                  |
| 4. Reading Comprehension     | 16. Student Behaviour                    |
| 5. Mathematical Concepts     | 17. Correction of Misbehaviour           |
| 6. Growth: Development       | 18. Student Progress Report              |
| 7. Diagnose Student Skills   | 19. (This competency has been withdrawn) |
| 8. Long Range Goals          | 20. Cultural Awareness                   |
| 9. Lesson Objectives         | 21. Self Concept                         |
| 10. Instructional Materials  | 22. Social Skills - Peers                |
| 11. Instructional Activities | 23. Values Clarification                 |
| 12. Student Rapport          | 24. Exceptional Student Needs            |

brief description of the six knowledge-based domains. Appendix C provides a summary of these conceptual categories.

### Curricular Structure

The design of the programme is derived from a centralised curriculum that was coordinated by the Florida Office of Teacher Education, Certification and Staff Development. The central resource document for beginning teachers and supervisory personnel is the "Handbook of the Florida Performance Measurement System" (Florida Office of Teacher Education, 1982). This Handbook not only provides a comprehensive overview of the F.B.T.P. and its organisational framework but it also incorporates a detailed instructional compendium relative to the six knowledge base domains.

The handbook is written on the premise that the beginning teachers and the beginning teacher support staff require a consistent reference base for monitoring the instructional performance expectations of the F.B.T.P. To ensure that this handbook covers both practical and theoretical components of the beginning teachers' programme, each instructional domain has incorporated the following information:

First, each domain describes the performance concepts and the manner in which they interrelate within classroom instruction. Then each concept is defined and complemented by examples of the various indicators of each concept. Instructional examples of each indicator is provided in detail.

Supportive theoretical reference and research evidence conclude each section that describes the specific domain. Numerous references on the research on teaching, curriculum, student assessment and classroom management are provided. For

example, the theoretical discussion on the domain "Evaluation" makes reference to over one hundred bibliographic references. Besides the conceptual components portrayed in each domain the handbook also provides practical and theoretical information on topics such as classroom environment, various instructional strategies, and pupil assessment methods. In summary, the design, curriculum standards and control of the curriculum lies with the state educational authorities. Elective choices for the beginning teacher are not present. Flexibility of the programme is best reflected in the fact that each beginning teacher may progress through the performance competencies at their individual pace. Hence, beginning teachers may complete their programme in less than six months (Morelli, 1983).

The observation instruments used by the beginning teacher's supervisory support staff are the basis for implementing the curriculum structure. The F.B.T.P. decided upon five classroom observation instruments, four formative instruments and one summative. These instruments would enable the supervisors of the beginning teacher to provide objective data on the six instructional domains of the F.B.T.P. (F.B.T.P. Handbook, 1982, p. 204-248). It is an expectation that all rsupervisory personnel will become knowledgable and skillful with their supervisory responsibilities as described in the handbook. Orientation and in-service workshops are provided for the support staff and supervisory personnel so that they may be skilled in using both the classroom observation instruments and the interview observation instruments.

The workshop clinicians on supervision methods are expected to review data gathering, supervisory communication procedures, role and responsibilities of supervisors and evaluative



techniques with the members of the beginning teacher's support staff. In districts such as Palm Beach County the teacher education center employed a project manager of the F.B.T.P. who not only administered the programme but also was responsible for developing the professional development programme for the supervisory support staff members (Jensen, 1983a). To enrich the supervision materials contained in the Handbook, Palm Beach County supervisory personnel received additional in-service support through a programme entitled Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement (T.E.S.A.) (Kerman, Kimball, and Martin, 1980). T.E.S.A. presents fifteen specific teacher behaviours which discriminate between teacher interactions with low and high student achievers. This programme claims not only to improve the beginning teacher's instructional abilities and the pupils' academic achievement but it also provides an interaction and data gathering model for teacher supervisors.

Nineteen learning packages also were prepared for the beginning teachers and their support staff personnel. These packages cover the six domains and the one hundred and thirty-three indicators of the F.B.T.P. The design of each learning package consists of a similar instructional pattern. First basic information on the domain and related indicators is presented, then a section on comprehension and application follows. Sections on modelling, guided practice and independent practice conclude the instructional sequence. A checklist accompanies each package allowing application for the appropriate subject and grade level.

The competence verification process of the F.B.T.P. com-

prises eight components. The major component is the documentation provided by the formative instruments applicable to each domain. Four formative evaluation sessions will provide the minimal opportunities for the supervisors to inform and advise the beginning teachers of their progress. All records, data gathering forms and conference documentation are kept in the beginning teacher's individual portfolio.

### Governance Factors

#### Policy

The Florida Beginning Teacher Program (F.B.T.P.) is designed to provide the beginning teacher with the support base necessary to ensure successful entry into the teaching profession. This programme requires the demonstration of competent classroom performance by the beginning teacher in six domains of teacher behaviour described earlier. This is best illustrated by the text of the Senate Bill 549 - July 1, 1981.

"no individual shall be issued a regular certificate until he has completed one school year of satisfactory teaching pursuant to law and such other criteria as the state board shall require by rule, or a year long internship approved by the state board." (Florida Education Standards Commission, 1982).

It should be noted that all graduating student teachers in Florida universities or teacher colleges require a bachelor's degree prior to entry into the teaching profession. However, regardless of the establishment of the F.B.T.P., pre-service degree certification requirements still remained unchanged.

### Assessment and Certification

Each beginning teacher is assigned a classroom with full teaching responsibilities. However, a supervisory support staff and school building administrator jointly forms a professional development plan in concert with the beginning teacher. The professional development plan is initiated prior to the beginning of the school year and updated following each formative observation or conference. All information and completed data collection instruments are kept in the beginning teacher's official portfolio.

A summative evaluation and formal recommendation for certification may be completed once the beginning teacher has demonstrated all competencies. This final assessment generally occurs between the sixth and ninth month of the school year.

A teacher participating in the beginning teacher programme retains full bargaining rights and benefits and receives full pay according to the school district's adopted salary schedule. Successful completion of the beginning teacher programme requires that the superintendent of the school district recommend the teacher for certification. However there is no guarantee for employment within the particular district where the internship took place. Decline in enrollment, fiscal shortfall, or policy decisions not related to the performance of the intern might result in no continuing appointment within the district.

Unsuccessful interns may appeal the judgement of the superintendent's assessment of the intern's progress. This appeal would be reviewed by the Education Practices Commission. Also, unsuccessful interns may apply to repeat the beginning teacher programme. In this case placement applica-



tions would be made directly to the school district of their choice.

### Funding

Financing of the F.B.T.P. was acquired from several sources within the Department of Education Funding. Major components of funding included:

a) a staff development fund was increased from \$5.00 F.T.E. to \$6.00 F.T.E. with \$1.70/F.T.E. of this money allocated to the F.B.T.P.;

b) teacher education centres in each district were re-funded at \$3.00/student;

c) non-credit university funding was maintained at \$1.55/F.T.E. for teacher education centre activities;

d) \$230,000.00 was provided to train administrators for the beginning teacher programme activities;

e) all interns would receive full salary applicable to all first teacher contracts according to the district's salary schedule.

In general the estimated costs for 1,300 interns in 1982 was estimated at \$9 million.

### Organisational Components

#### Initiation

The initiation phase of the F.B.T.P. actually began before the State Legislature passed the major policy legislation in July 1981. As early as 1979 the Florida Office of Teacher Education, Certification and Staff Development was responsible for developing recommendations on the beginning teacher programmes. Proposals were then sought from the post

secondary institutions and the teacher education centres.

Proposals were to include procedures for identifying interns, providing supervision, academic programme activities, assessing performance, and identifying potential budget costs where possible. Various beginning teacher models were received and four proposals were then financed. Field testing occurred over eighteen months with each model representing a different consortium of educators, i.e., small district, medium district, large district and one state university.

Results of the field testing of the four models, as well as receiving input from the Education Standards Commission and professional education groups, combined to establish the academic content and organisational principles of the F.B.T.P. By January 1982 a Beginning Teacher Handbook by the Florida Office of Teacher Education (1982) was prepared and a programme of orientation was implemented.

Each of the 67 districts in Florida had a beginning teacher contact and information was circulated through these individuals. Regional information meetings were held and Department of Education officials met with planning committees as they began to write their individual plan subject to the guidelines in the handbook. Twelve three-member teams critiqued the plans and by June 1982 the plans were adopted. Throughout the summer the individual school districts, their respective teacher education centre personnel, university and college programmers and the initial group of mentors and interns began their orientation sessions prior to the beginning of the programme in September 1982. Thirteen hundred beginning teachers participated in the programme.

### Implementation

During the implementation of the F.B.T.P. roles and responsibilities outlined in the handbook were reviewed and clarified. Nevertheless, the organisational framework emphasized that personnel directly or indirectly connected to the administration of the F.B.T.P. would follow prescriptive procedures. For example, the superintendent of each county would provide accountability that the F.B.T.P. would be successfully implemented as well as provide final verification that the beginning teacher had demonstrated the required competencies as well as had completed successfully the local county's F.B.T.P. The director of professional staff development would organise all in-service activities of the F.B.T.P. for the training personnel, supervisory teachers (mentors) and the beginning teachers. Furthermore each county established a project manager who would administer the F.B.T.P. as well as monitor the beginning teachers' progress throughout the year. F.B.T.P. records, certification problems, and budgetary management would also comprise this person's assignment.

Principals and experienced teachers comprise the beginning teacher's supervisory support team. However, the area superintendent and the induction project manager maintain a roster of qualified support staff members. Moreover superintendents are respd the induction project manager maintain a roster of qualified support staff members. Moreover superintendents are responsible for selecting a three person support staff for each beginning teacher under their supervision including, when possible, the principal of the beginning teacher's school. Although the principal is responsible for the final summative evaluation and acts as the custodian of



the beginning teacher's portfolio, all school-based personnel actively participate in the formative supervisory activities. Appendix D summarises the responsibilities and activities of the supervisory support staff. When support staff members become unable to fulfill their roles, they contact the appropriate area superintendent. The area superintendents, at their discretion, assign another support staff member. Should a conflict arise between a beginning teacher and a member of the support staff, the beginning teacher can appeal to the appropriate area superintendent for assignment of another staff member.

Meanwhile the beginning teacher is expected to participate in the scheduling and participation of classroom observation and assessment procedures. A formulation of an individual instructional plan will also emanate from discussions with the support staff. This plan must in turn complement the beginning teacher's full-time teaching assignment. Staff supervisors will also contribute a copy of all documentation to the beginning teacher's professional portfolio.

### Institutionalization

The F.B.T.P. has certainly become institutionalized within the organisational framework of the Florida educational system. Averaging 1,200 graduates per year the F.B.T.P. continues to act as a prototype of the performance-based induction model. Instrumental in the institutionalization of this programme is that each phase has clearly specified timelines that begin each April prior to the forthcoming school year in September. Appendix E provides a summary of these institutionalization organising components as reflected in the time-

line of the critical events in planning the F.B.T.P. in Palm Beach County.

One important group that is instrumental in the implementation, evaluation and revision of each county's programme of the induction programme is the local F.B.T.P. district committee. Each committee comprises 15-20 members including area directors, district administrators, district in-service personnel, principals, teachers, union representatives and local university or college teacher education representatives. The committee provides the major role in communicating with state F.B.T.P. personnel as well as monitor the overall operation and academic standards of the F.B.T.P. Integration of the F.B.T.P. with other in-service initiatives in the local county district become a major priority of this committee's work. Finally, the financial, organisational and instructional programming activities of the F.B.T.P. must be facilitated within the overall in-service priorities of each district (Jensen, 1983a).

#### Programme Evaluation

During the first year of the F.B.T.P. a number of interested professionals from the Department of Education, Florida school districts, teacher education centres, colleges and universities decided to evaluate the success of the F.B.T.P. In particular an assessment of the competency-based component of the F.B.T.P. was to be measured. Therefore by June 1983, immediately following the completion of the first year of the F.B.T.P., a programme evaluation study was released by the Department of Education on the F.B.T.P.

Issues and topics evaluated were:

- a) time and resources needed to implement the programme,
- b) perceived improvement of the beginning teacher by each member of the support team,
- c) attitudes of support team towards the F.B.T.P. at the beginning and the end of school year,
- d) perceived effectiveness of training programme for support team,
- e) perceived effectiveness of training programme for beginning teachers,
- f) identified areas in which beginning teacher required assistance,
- g) perceived degree of improvement by support staff in supervision and assessing effective teacher behaviour,
- h) modifications necessary to improve the programme.

(Florida Department of Education, 1983)

This evaluation process has continued each year with the source of the evaluative data of the F.B.T.P. derived essentially from the programme evaluation undertaken by the Department of Education (Florida D.O.E., 1983). As described earlier various issues and topics experienced and/or perceived by the beginning teacher, building level administrators, peer teachers and other professional educators form the basis of the evaluation. Other evaluative data was obtained from the Palm Beach County programme director's report (Jensen, 1983b) and interviews with educators who were involved in the F.B.T.P.

In general, the Palm Beach County beginning teacher programme evaluation results complemented the overall State evaluation results. Beginning teachers, principals and peer



teachers were all supportive of the F.B.T.P. Supervision strategies and classroom instruction were perceived as two areas of the F.B.T.P. that were rated as improved since the programme had been established.

The T.E.S.A. programme used as the supervisory instruction programme was considered too advanced in content and process to be used effectively for the enhancement of beginning teachers' instructional needs. However, the Palm Beach County did decide to use the programme for staff development activities with experienced teachers (Palm Beach County School System, 1982).

Schools that had the positive leadership of the principal regarding the implementation of the F.B.T.P. enabled the benefits of the programme to be more realized by other staff members. This situation also enhanced the in-service activities that could be developed in the school through the project manager's role.

The project manager's role was perceived as most essential by the Palm Beach County teacher personnel. Not only did this person assume the leadership for organising, implementing and evaluating the F.B.T.P., but also the project manager assumed the essential responsibility of working with the support staff members in the area of clinical supervision and its related activities. Including the manager's salary, a technical assistant's salary and operating costs the Palm Beach County programme cost approximately \$50,000 to provide the additional benefits of the project manager's role within the F.B.T.P. (Wood, 1983).

One issue of concern for the Palm Beach County was that in 1983/84 300 beginning teachers would be involved in the

F.B.T.P., 100 more than in the previous year. Hence there would be more demand on in-service delivery by the project manager in orienting the more than 400-500 additional principals and teachers to the F.B.T.P. Compounding this issue was the fact that only half of the 1982/83 intake of beginning teachers in Palm Beach County completed the F.B.T.P. necessitating the remaining participants to continue with their programme in the following school year. Nevertheless, no participant was requested to withdraw from the F.B.T.P.

In summary, the report recommended that continuation and expansion of the internship projects should not only occur but development of permanent funding for the full range of field experiences should also be recognized.

### Summary

Induction programmes in the United States generally reflect the performance-based model. This chapter identified what factors contributed to the development of the model. Effective teaching research, professional consensus, and theoretical postulation and conceptualization were described as the three main factors. Four examples of state mandated induction programmes are presented. Three states Georgia, Oklahoma and North Carolina were briefly discussed. An overview of academic components, governance criteria and organisational structure are described for each state.

A comprehensive presentation of the induction components of the Florida State Beginning Teacher Program (F.B.T.A.) provided the major focus of the chapter. Within the academic component section a review of the six domains of teacher behaviour and 24 generic competencies were presented. Each

domain was briefly described as well as an examination of the beginning teacher assessment strategies used within the F.B.T.P. The governance section highlighted the legislative, contractual and funding components of the F.B.T.P. Finally, the organisational components were described emphasizing the three phases of the programme's implementation process.

References to the Palm Beach County F.B.T.P. were incorporated into the concluding section that described the programme evaluation data that has been undertaken by the State's Department of Education. Overall results of the surveys indicate unilateral support by administrators, mentors, professional supervisory personnel and beginning teachers.

In general performance-based induction programmes have received overall support in the U.S. Financial and legislative policy at the state level have ensured that induction programmes become an integral component of the teacher education in many states. The next chapter will review the induction programme activities of the United States' northern neighbour, Canada.



## Chapter 11

### INDUCTION PROGRAMMES IN CANADA

Despite an ongoing concern regarding both the preparation of beginning teachers and the instructional environment within which they work no comprehensive provincially based induction programme was implemented in Canada prior to September 1985. However, with the advent of the Initiation to Teaching Project in the province of Alberta this past year a new national awareness in Canada has begun regarding the merits and the potentialities of assisting teachers as they begin their professional careers. Therefore this chapter will focus upon the examination of the academic governance and organisation components of Alberta's Initiation To Teaching Project (A.I.T.P.). Although evaluative data on the programme's achievements and problems will not be available until June 1986, after the completion of this thesis, the organisational framework and the implementation procedures of this induction programme provide an interesting case study on induction. However, prior to the examination of the Alberta programme a brief overview of induction programme practices and related research undertaken in Canada over the past few years will be highlighted.

#### Background

##### Overview of Induction Practices

As early as 1973 a report by the Alberta Teachers Association (A.T.A., 1973) summarised the opinions of principals on the first year experience of teachers prepared in Alberta universities. Despite recommendations for improved programming at the three provincial universities' teacher education pro-

grammes no specific recommendation was offered regarding the improvements or changes that could be accommodated within the induction year. For these principals, as with most educators in Canada, an improved internship experience implied an extension of the pre-service practicum with improved supervisory assistance for beginning teachers.

However in 1977 a teacher induction project was initiated by the Manitoba Department of Education (Reimer, 1978). Despite the collaborative support of the Department with the Manitoba Teachers Society and all other teacher education stakeholders in the province only \$120,000 was allocated and the project was only to last one year. Nevertheless, the evaluative study of the project identified a comprehensive list of priority needs of first year teachers as well as itemizing the unique needs of teachers relative to urban, rural and remote northern districts. The recommendations emanating from the report (Reimer, 1978) (Appendix F) greatly supported the need to initiate a formalized induction programme that would continue from year to year. In subsequent years induction practices in Manitoba were evidenced only in some districts. This was generally characterized by the local teachers association's ceremonial orientation of beginning teachers to the profession and the distribution of printed resource material by the Manitoba Teachers Society (MTS, 1982) on the first year of teaching.

A similar induction programme initiative, though moderately financed, was achieved in Quebec in the late seventies with the Quebec Probation Model. This two-year optional probationary programme for beginning teachers was characterized by

each beginning teacher being assisted by a probation committee of three respondents, one named by the probationer, one chosen by the teaching staff of the school and one a member of the school administration. The role of the committee was to meet regularly with the beginning teacher while providing both formative feedback and permanent certification (MTS, 1982). This programme eventually ended as the demand for beginning teachers decreased within Quebec and retraining of teachers became a higher priority (Emery, 1983).

In 1982 during a period of teacher education review in British Columbia an "Ad Hoc Internship Committee" was established by the Teacher Education Committee of the British Columbia Teachers Federation (Elliott, Andrews, Cross, and Tierne, 1983). All stakeholders in teacher education in the province worked cooperatively to develop a beginning teacher programme proposal after having examined the problems and possibilities of various induction models. Besides providing a rationale for the proposed internship programme, as this induction programme was to have been named, the committee identified various elements and issues that would be inherent in adopting an induction programme (Appendix G). The reception by the Ministry, B.C.T.F., universities, superintendents, trustees and principals was most favourable. However, after eight months of committee work the induction programme proposal was temporarily shelved by the provincial government stating that for financial reasons no new educational initiatives would be imminent in the coming year. At the present time the proposal still sits on the proverbial backburner awaiting recall. Nevertheless, many teacher education jurisdictions across Canada involved in discussions concerning



beginning teacher programmes examined the document and assessed its merits accordingly for potential implementation. In fact, a policy paper (Hersom, Birch, Gaskell, Horowitz, and Plante, 1981) that reviewed teacher education research in Canada recommended that five themes be the focus for the 1980's. Three of these five recommendations applied to induction programmes or beginning teachers: i) impact of teacher training on beginning teachers; ii) socialization of beginning teachers; and iii) governance of teacher education and its application to collaborative involvement of all stakeholders in all three phases of teacher education.

### Overview of Research

While these endeavours of induction programming were surfacing, initial research on the beginning teacher in Canada was being undertaken. Fair (1973) examined the instructional activities of beginning teachers to understand what influences acted upon them with particular reference to change. Fair identified that without substantial instructional support from experienced peers or supervisors the greatest limitation upon instructional change were the pupils in the beginning teacher's class. The need for providing instructional support to beginning teachers through induction programmes was recommended. McIntosh (1976) examined the role of the mentors regarding their instructional and professional support afforded the beginning teacher's first year of socialization into the profession. As mentioned earlier, caution was raised by the research findings of this Ontario study that beginning teachers and experienced teachers were apprehensive if not reluctant to actively collaborate in the professional initia-

tion of the beginning teacher. Meanwhile a comprehensive case study on the first year experience in Alberta of beginning teachers (Hawke, 1980) indicated that the lack of induction programmes greatly hampered their professional growth and could contribute to the alienation of the teachers within their profession. Ilawsky (1978) sampled nineteen beginning teachers in an urban district in Manitoba. He examined the beginning teachers' transitional experiences from pre-service to induction. Ilawsky concluded that there was generally a positive reception and orientation of the beginning teachers to their teaching assignment and new school. Furthermore it was apparent that the induction project within that province had a direct effect on the positive response and cooperation of the principals when working with new teachers.

Two surveys published by the teachers associations in Manitoba and British Columbia (MTS, 1978; BCTF, 1978) collected information relating to the performance of beginning teachers during their first year of teaching. Findings in both surveys evidenced a general satisfaction with the quality of graduates from the provincial universities. However both studies recommended that more orientation and in-service programming should be provided for beginning teachers during their first years of teaching.

Edmonds and Bessai (1980) also provided a comprehensive survey of Canadian teachers in their first year of service. This national study primarily obtained a descriptive profile of beginning teachers as well as an identification of their potential problem areas and their sources of assistance and advice. Over one thousand respondents, the majority (90%)



having degrees, indicated that they were positive about the way in which they were performing and felt satisfied with their entry into the profession. Nevertheless, formal professional assistance specifically aimed at beginning teachers was reported as virtually non-existent. However, approximately 50% did receive informal support and advice from principals and experienced staff members in the school. Edmonds and Bessai (1980) concluded their report by suggesting that greater access to programmes that enhance professional development should be made available to beginning teachers by school boards. This might include organising special courses and visitations to other classrooms, financing further university credit course work and "encouraging principals to designate particular members of staff for pastoral, advisory roles with regard to all newly employed teachers" (p. 60).

A follow-up pilot project (Edmonds and Bessai, 1981) in the province of Prince Edward Island examined a tutor programme for beginning teachers. However, the number of teachers involved was minimal and adoption by the provincial government for programme institutionalization was not forthcoming.

Finally, further investigation (Andrews, 1985b) of induction practices within British Columbia indicated that informal practices do exist occasionally in certain schools and in certain districts. However, as in all provinces but Alberta no major initiative to formalize a provincial or regional induction programme occurred until 1985.

Nevertheless, in Canada one critical impediment in the development of induction programmes has been the diminishing demand for new teachers. Since 1968 enrolments in teacher education have changed from approximately 44,000 to 15,000 in



1982 (Gilliss, 1981). The minimal hiring of new teachers in Canadian school districts reflects this trend with a general oversupply of unemployed experienced teachers reaching twenty percent in such provinces as British Columbia (B.C. Certification Advisory Committee, 1985). Despite the universities' and teaching profession's unanimous call for internship programmes to follow pre-service (Ad Hoc Internship Committee, B.C., 1982), the lack of opportunity for hiring beginning teachers discourages the policy-makers to establish such programmes. Nevertheless, teacher educators in Canada (Hersom et al., 1981; Joint Board of Teacher Education, 1981; Clifton and Long, 1983; Andrews, 1985c) are recommending that professional development begins the day the student teachers begin their initial programme of professional study and continues throughout their induction and in-service career phases.

In February 1985 concrete evidence of one provincial jurisdiction's commitment to implement an induction programme was realized. The province of Alberta through the initiatives of the Ministry of Education established a programme for beginning teachers called the Initiation to Teaching Project. The following description highlights various components of this programme.

#### Alberta's Induction Programme

The major purpose of the Alberta induction programme, the Initiation to Teaching Project (A.I.T.P.) "is to provide for the continued professional training of the graduates of faculties of education in an internship environment to facilitate the transition from student to professional teacher" (Alberta Education, 1985a, p. 2). The A.I.T.P. is also a manpower

employment project given that A.I.T.P. will also provide employment for prospective teachers who would otherwise be unemployed or underemployed. The project began in September 1985 and is to operate for two years until June 1987. Extension of the programme will be based on evaluation results acquired over the two-year period. Although the project is not universal, the programme can accommodate up to 900 teachers graduating from the provincial universities. This will facilitate easily the number of teacher graduates leaving the three provincial teacher education programmes plus other teacher graduates who have not been employed. In summary, A.I.T.P. is seen as a pilot project that will "assess both the usefulness of the internship environment and the effectiveness of teacher graduates" (Alberta Education, 1985b, p. 1).

#### Academic Components of the A.I.T.P.

##### Curricular Organising Principles

Although no withdrawal or pass system is incorporated into the A.I.T.P. programme and although no guaranteed job is available upon completion of the ten-month internship, the Alberta Education policy documents (Alberta Education, 1985a, 1985b, and 1985c) all emphasize that the A.I.T.P. must be recognized as an important component in the training of beginning teachers. For example the curriculum organising principles of A.I.T.P. emphasize the need to promote continuous training among beginning teachers so as to provide opportunities for the "refinement of teaching skills" (Alberta Education, 1985a, p. 2). Furthermore the "development of professional relationships" (Alberta Education, 1985a, p. 2) also constitutes a basic curriculum principle within the academic

framework of A.I.T.P. As King (Alberta Education, 1985a), the Minister of Education, states the teacher education graduate "will be able to participate in an innovative extension of their university training under the guidance of excellent classroom teachers" (p. 1). A.I.T.P. is also directed at further developing the professional skills of supervising teachers while providing the opportunity for both beginning and experienced teachers to develop a greater understanding of supervisory practices, observation feedback and instructional assessment. Teacher development, applicable to both cognitive and affective domains, predominates.

### Curricular Emphases

Complementing this curriculum organisation is the content of the actual curriculum. Here the curriculum emphases are best identified within the range of stated teaching experiences that the individual intern must undertake and successfully perform. These teaching experiences include

- i) planning of instruction,
- ii) diagnosing student needs and learning requirements,
- iii) evaluating student progress and achievement,
- iv) developing and/or identifying instructional materials,
- v) integrating learning resources with instruction,
- vi) managing the classroom,
- vii) communicating with parents,
- viii) designing and implementing extracurricula activities,
- ix) participating in professional activities and in-service.

(Alberta Education, 1985b, p. 3)

Throughout these activities the intern is encouraged to work with a variety of teaching staff and in a variety of instruc-



tional settings reflective of the intern's pre-service training and curricular interests.

Complementing the academic programme for the interns is the provision that participating principals and teachers would receive in-service in areas of supervision, observation monitoring, coaching, and evaluation so as to enhance their own professional development expertise.

### Curricular Structure

The curricular structure is derived from an instructional programme that must be developed by the individual participating districts or independent school systems in the province. Each programme must ensure that the intern will assume a progressively expanding set of instructional and curricular responsibilities as the school year unfolds. Within this assignment a full range of teaching experiences relative to the interests and abilities of the individual interns would be undertaken. Opportunities for participation in professional activities outside the classroom that may be sponsored by the universities, Alberta Teachers Association (A.T.A.) or local school boards must also be facilitated. Given that interns would have 32 contact hours minimum per week in the sponsoring school, the internship experience is regarded as a full-time instructional assignment.

The submission of programme proposals for 1985 suggests that there is commonality among the various A.I.T.P. district programmes (Gee, 1985). However, due to district size, in-service programme options and resources, grade and curriculum level of interns, and number of interns the individual projects do indicate that there are numerous differences among

programmes. Hence the design of the curricular emphases and curriculum structure potentially could be different for each intern.

### Governance Factors

#### Policy

Given that the project has only a two-year lifespan, although renewal may be considered once the evaluative data has been analysed, A.I.T.P. operates with a clearly defined set of guidelines within the policy framework of the induction programme. These guidelines include:

i) The project eligibility criteria requires Alberta residents to apply for internship from the three provincial university teacher education programmes.

ii) Applicants must have lived in Alberta the last three years prior to graduation, have been at least two months unemployed, graduated within the last 24 months, had no previous employment as a full-time teacher, and have acquired an Alberta Interim Professional Certificate.

iii) The minimum period of the intern's participation is one school academic year of ten months at a minimum of 32 hours/week.

iv) Intern teachers must not displace other staff either as aides, or part-time or substitute teachers. However, teacher vacancies may be applied for by interns whereby the intern terminates the A.I.T.P. contract and assumes a regular teaching contract.

v) Intern positions are assigned on the ratio formula of one intern for every 500 pupils within a school district.

vi) Private school boards and other private educational

systems are also entitled to apply to Alberta Education for an A.I.T.P. grant. All rules and regulations equally apply to these private institutions and to the local public school boards.

vii) Provincial teacher education stakeholder groups and their respective roles and responsibilities have been specifically identified by the Education Ministry (Appendix H).

Approval by the A.T.A. to cooperatively support the Ministry's induction programme ensures that their own monitoring of the A.I.T.P. governance procedures will be respectful of A.T.A. policies and guidelines. For example, an appeal procedure has been set up to adjudicate appeals by school jurisdictions or interns with respect to the eligibility criteria of the participating interns as well as the potential refusal by the Ministry to not fund a local district's proposal.

#### Assessment and Certification

The assessment of the effectiveness of the intern's suitability for placement is a major factor in the establishment of the governance operatives within the A.I.T.P. Local school districts granted financial support are requested to evaluate the performance of the intern providing consultation and remediation as required. Given that all applicants must have graduated from Alberta's teacher education programmes (minimum four year degree programme) and have obtained an interim professional certificate from the Ministry, a certain homogeneity exists among the academic qualifications of the interns. Moreover a certain baseline of minimum competencies is expected to be demonstrated by the beginning teachers.



Consequently the A.I.T.P. project mandate of supervision and evaluative practices is carried out by the local district through the Ministry assessment guidelines. The governance of the intern's actions is also monitored by the A.T.A. This is necessitated by the intern's requirement of becoming an A.T.A. member and abiding by the instructional, learning conditions, and professional regulations of the Association. Guidance, supervision and remediation by certificated A.T.A. teachers occurs with the intern throughout the ten-month assignment. However, it should be noted that the assignment of the intern must be under the supervision of a principal or head teacher as well as a team of associates rather than an individual teacher.

Evaluative criteria for the intern's assessment is based on seven growth and development competencies (Alberta Education, 1985b, p. 4). They are i) instructing, ii) planning, iii) problem-solving, iv) decision-making, v) communicating, vi) evaluating students, and vii) maintaining professional relationships. Written documentation of the progress of the intern is to be maintained and the superintendent of the local district must provide a summative assessment of the intern's professional growth at the end of the programme. This final report will also include a summary statement that describes the professional qualities of the individual. Nevertheless, regardless of the intern's performance the experience the intern receives does not contribute to the teaching experience required for permanent certification or salary increments. However, as the A.T.A. states (A.T.A., 1985) "a favourable report on one's year as an intern will undoubtedly be a most

useful reference in seeking employment in other jurisdictions" (p. 7).

### Funding

Besides intern assessment policies governance of the A.I.T.P. is also maintained by the funding and monitoring role of the Ministry of Education. The funding formula has Alberta Education and Alberta Manpower contributing to each local board a sum of \$15,600 per intern. This figure must include all optional health and pension benefits afforded each intern. Also the local district may receive up to \$1,000 per intern for related instructional costs such as tuition and textbooks. External consultants or instructors may also be hired out of this fund (\$30/hr.) to offer specialized workshops for interns. Released time for intern supervisors may be facilitated out of the \$1,000 resource fund but no additional funding is provided for release time or cooperating teacher honoraria. Each project proposal submitted for funding receives scrutiny by the Ministry's A.I.T.P. personnel. Hence, internship programmes that do not meet the criteria will not receive financial support.

### Organisational Components

#### Initiation

Based on these project guidelines the initiation phase of the A.I.T.P. was formally announced by the Alberta Legislature on April 22, 1985. Although cooperation was sought by Alberta Education from the A.T.A. and the provincial universities, the draft of the plan and the academic and governance components primarily emanated from the Minister of Education's office. The Minister stated that the "project reflects our (the

Government's) commitment to continuing leadership in the preparation of beginning teachers" (Alberta Education, 1985a, p. 1) Meanwhile the A.T.A. agreed to participate once present teaching positions were safeguarded, that some form of internship might be introduced by the Ministry after the two-year project ended, and that interns would become members of the A.T.A. upon assignment to their school. After four months of deliberation the Ministry established the programme even before the details of the project were made available to the teacher education stakeholders.

### Implementation

The implementation phase of the programme began immediately in May 1985 with local school board and private school jurisdictions being asked to develop a plan with respect to employing A.I.T.P. interns. The plan was to include recruitment, selection, placement, orientation, supervision and evaluative procedures for the interns as well as supervision monitoring and evaluation procedures for the overall project. Upon receipt of the application the Ministry, in conjunction with Alberta Manpower would approve the project and then notify intern applicants of where potential A.I.T.P. projects would exist. Implementation of the various programmes is then monitored by the local Regional Office of Education.

The local school board does however receive responsibility for the recruitment and selection of the interns as well as the placement, supervision and assessment of the intern's instructional programme.

Each local A.I.T.P. is coordinated by a steering committee representing various stakeholder groups, i.e., local



teacher associations, principals, district office and university advisory personnel. This committee is responsible for monitoring and reporting on the progress of implementation as well as designing and conducting the evaluation of the programme in that district.

To assist in the implementation process monitoring guidelines for regional office personnel and evaluation committees of each local A.I.T.P. group were developed. This monitoring process assess whether the project is operating in conformity with its design and intent as well as to assess whether project objectives, academic and organisational, are being met by interns supervisory staff, and administrators.

### Institutionalization

The institutionalization phase of this induction programme remains uncertain. However, the next two years of implementation and programme evaluation could substantiate enough evidence and support to continue the A.I.T.P. programme as a more formal phase of teacher preparation in Alberta. A more detailed description of the evaluation procedures follows.

### Programme Evaluation

Alberta Education has assumed responsibility for the overall coordination, monitoring and evaluation of the Initiation to Teaching Project. However as mentioned before, the local steering committee of each programme is responsible for developing ongoing guidelines and evaluative criteria. The major evaluative tasks of the A.I.T.P. evaluation include assessment of both the internal (interns and supervisors) and

the external (project staff) impact of the programme as well as the implications for the various participant groups in teacher education. A comprehensive evaluation outline containing detailed terms of reference, has also been provided (Alberta Education, 1985c) for each school district involved in the A.I.T.P.

Over the two-year period a follow-up survey of interns who have completed A.I.T.P. will be undertaken so as to establish whether they successfully achieved employment. Also the survey will aim to establish what consequences the induction programme had upon the improvement of the intern's instructional skills and professional development. Another evaluative component of the project would include an assessment of the local organisation and the management of the project. Also an assessment would be conducted of the supervision programme and instructional programming offered to the interns by the supervisory support staff in the school and local district. A pre-test post-test design will be deployed to compare entry-level of the 1985 interns with their level of performance one year later when the classroom situation has been stabilized. Another study will compare one group of interns with an entry-level performance prior to internship and another group of first-year teachers who have completed the A.I.T.P. programme.

"An example of questions to be asked are what structural, process and background variables are correlated with gains in teaching competence? (Tanner and Ebers, 1985). Also what is the correlations between the gains in teaching competence and the provision of supervision activities and different kinds of professional development programmes for both intern and supervisor? (Alberta Education, 1985c, p. 6). Evaluative data would

be acquired through survey interviews, on-site observations and documented analysis. An annual evaluation report would then be submitted by the local steering committee to Alberta Education.

Alberta Education also expects recommendations for further action with respect to the continuation, modification or elimination of the A.I.T.P. programme from each steering committee.

### Summary

This chapter has provided an examination of induction programmes in Canada relative to an overview of the induction activities and research initiatives undertaken over the last twelve years. Recognition of the potential value of implementing induction programmes by various teacher education organisations in several provinces in Canada has been presented. However until the advent of the Initial Teachers Project in Alberta in 1985 induction programmes in Canada had not received any major funding of organisational support from provincial education authorities.

The A.I.T.P. of Alberta, a two-year induction project, was the main focus of the chapter. It was described within its academic, governance, and organisational components. The unique features of this induction programme being that the Ministry of Education in Alberta initiated the programme both as an extension of teacher training as well as an employment project of unemployed teacher education graduates. Other characteristics of A.I.T.P. that were discussed include the academic emphasis that combines both teacher development and selected competencies as the organising principles; a finan-



cial formula that provides release time for the intern; a regularized assessment process that monitors the intern's progress; and the initiation and implementation strategies that both provincial and local authorities must adhere to within the overall organisation framework of the project. Evaluative procedures for assessing the value and consequences of the A.I.T.P. programme were also reviewed.

## Introduction to Section 5

### ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analysis never stops unless you stop it because getting to know about something is an endless process. Remember that all things are related to everything else.

(Koberg and Bognall, 1972, p. 48)

This section provides a summative analysis of the descriptive case and field documentation that has been presented on the induction programmes in Britain, Australia, New Zealand, the United States and Canada. The analysis of the case study data is presented from two perspectives. First, chapter 12 will provide an analysis of the induction models as it applies to an overview of the three programme components: academic, governance and organisation as well as the overall evaluation documentation. Second, chapter 13 analyses the research as it pertains to the interpretations of the key research questions proposed in chapter 1. This data analysis is examined by highlighting the induction themes of confluence in teacher education and the self-directing professional.

## Chapter 12

### CASE STUDY COMPARISON OF INDUCTION PROGRAMMES IN FIVE COUNTRIES

This chapter provides a comprehensive comparison of all documentation relative to the induction programmes of Britain, Australia, New Zealand, United States and Canada. A four-category matrix comprises this comparative analysis. First the academic and organisational components, reflective of Conrad's and Berman's theoretical frameworks as well as Cushman's governance factors will be analysed. These three categories of analysis will be complemented by a fourth category, a summary of the common themes reflected in the programme evaluation and research information of all countries. The first focus of this analysis is the academic component of the induction programmes.

#### Analysis of Academic Components

Conrad's theoretical model of academic programming provided the framework for organising the curricular elements of this analysis. As described earlier in chapter 6 Conrad's model divides the pedagogical orientation of curriculum into three analytical components. The three components, curricular organising principle, curricular emphases and curricular structure, were each applied to the academic programming characteristics of the induction programmes in the five countries. The following discussion examines each of these analytical components.



## 1. Curricular Organising Principle

An identification of the curricular organising principle of each induction programme indicates that only two principles predominated, namely teacher development and selected competencies. Figure 13 illustrates the summary of this data.

Figure 13

Summary of Induction Programmes'  
Curricular Organising Principle

Principles	Representative Induction Programmes
1. Academic Disciplines (Subject Emphasis)	- To some degree Britain, i.e. extended programme component  - To a lesser degree U.S.
2. Teacher Development (Cognitive and Affective Domains)	- Major emphasis in Britain, Australia, New Zealand and Canada  - An important but secondary emphasis in U.S.
3. Great Books and Ideas (Philosophical Inquiry)	- No evidence in any country
4. Social Problems (Application of Knowledge In Social Context)	- No evidence in any country except Northern Territories in Australia
5. Selected Competencies (Demonstrated Instruc- tional and Practical Skills)	- Major emphasis in U.S.  - Important but secondary emphasis in Britain, Australia, New Zealand and Canada

Essentially all countries' programmes incorporated the teacher development curricular organising principle. Goals and objectives of induction programmes that emphasised the improvement of i) general knowledge of the profession in the cognitive and affective domains; ii) personal development recognizing the socialization process of the induction year; and iii) professional development of individual needs within an incremental

continuum of teacher education were evident to some degree in every induction programme.

However, the presence of this particular organising principle was also complemented by the existence of instructional, curricular and practical skills. The six domains of the Florida B.T.P. that include planning, control of student conduct, organisation and development of instruction, presentation of subject matter, communication and evaluation of student process best exemplify the curricular orientation of this principle. Britain, Australia, New Zealand and Canada all have reference to these domains in their programme rationale. The expectation for beginning teachers within all these programmes is to encourage their application of the knowledge base in teaching and to employ professional skills, both generic and curricular, to their classroom practice. It should be emphasised, however, that in the Florida model, along with the other states in the U.S. this particular curricular organising principle of selected competencies is the most predominant. Within this orientation the teacher assessment criteria is very clearly established and given high priority within the induction programme. Hence the preference of the selected competency principle over the teacher development principle emanates from this predilection by teacher educators for measurement and teacher assessment. Furthermore, given the promotion of state-wide performance testing and performance evaluation systems this organising principle becomes most essential to the U.S. induction programmes.

Another organising principle, the academic discipline orientation, that focusses upon subject emphasis, does receive

attention in both the U.S. and Britain. Florida, Liverpool and Northumberland's programmes all provide a curricular structure that encourages an emphasis of the academic disciplines. In Britain the external programme component of the two D.E.S. sponsored projects for example offered subject-based course work as the major focus of this programme. In Florida the induction programme was partially designed to enhance greater application of the reading, writing and mathematics knowledge base while applying the generic instructional competencies.

Finally, it would appear that none of the induction programmes offered any concrete evidence of either the great books and ideas or the social problems organising principle. No evidence was given for their exclusion in the induction programmes except that these two themes were assumed to be inherent within the various pre-service programmes prior to the induction year. It should be noted however that the Northern Territories in Australia did incorporate the social problem theme to some degree within their induction programme. This was due to the aboriginal social context of the schools as well as the rural isolation of the schools' location. Both factors would comprise a critical influence to the instructional experience of the beginning teachers who would enter the profession in these outback areas.

## 2. Curricular Emphases: Four Continua

This component of the academic framework identifies specific differences among the countries' induction programmes. Each programme interprets the four continua in a unique manner. Hence the summative representation of the continua illustrates more clearly the academic differences of the



curricular orientation. See Figure 14 for a graphic summary of these differences.

Figure 14

Summary of Induction Programmes  
Curricular Emphases (Continued)

- a) Locus of Learning
- <Professional Centres -                      Experiential Learning  
Workshops (External) . . . . . Supervision (Internal)>
- . Britain - instructional programme is equally distributed in both contexts
  - . Australia - some states have residential and/or regularly held workshops
  - . New Zealand - opportunities for external professional workshops
  - . Canada - some workshop options
  - . U.S. - emphasis on classroom supervision
- b) Curriculum Context
- <Breadth . . . . . Depth>
- . Australia } varying degrees of curriculum and
  - . New Zealand } instructional workshop options with
  - . Canada } very little depth of study
  - . Britain - external workshop programme in primarily a subject oriented emphasis
  - . U.S. - in-depth study of six instructional domains
- c) Design of Programme
- <Project Initiated . . . . . Contractual . . . . . Teacher Initiated>
- . U.S. - supervisors of beginning teacher implemented structured programme
  - . Britain - requirements of instructional programme regularized
  - . Canada - school-based design by supervisors
  - . Australia - teacher input available
  - . New Zealand - most teacher input
- d) Flexibility of Program
- <Requirements . . . . . Distribution of Both . . . . . Electives>
- . U.S. - totally a required mandated programme
  - . Britain } equal requirements of
  - . Australia } Requirements and
  - electives
  - . Canada        individual-
  - . New Zealand    ized and
  - prevalence
  - of electives

a) Locus of Learning (Professional Centre Workshops vis-a-vis  
Experiential Learning)

Although opportunities exist in varying degrees for beginning teachers to pursue an instructional programme outside of the school setting only Britain has developed a model of induction programming that emphasises a formalized workshop

format. To implement this concept the external programmes of Liverpool and Northumberland used university, college and L.E.A. resource personnel to conduct a regularly scheduled series of lectures and workshops on curriculum matters. This instructional programme was balanced by the supervision sessions and tutorial meetings that occurred in the school focusing upon the experiential activities of the probationer. The other four countries did have similar locus of learning options. Australia, with its residential programme options and New Zealand, U.S., and Canada with their workshop in-service sessions did provide some formalized instruction to balance the classroom-based supervisory and tutorial options. Classroom visitations, visits to other schools, and beginning teacher seminars that were incorporated into the five countries' induction models also could be classified as additional external experiences. However, these induction practices were generally individually organised by informal planning or negotiated activities between beginning teacher and mentor.

b) Curriculum Content (Breadth vis-a-vis Depth)

Irrespective of the curricular organising principle of each induction programme the emphasis upon depth in curriculum content is really only evident in the U.S. based model. The F.B.T.P. exemplifies the detailed knowledge base orientation that may characterize the curriculum content of an induction programme. The six domains of instructional performance require all beginning teachers to learn and apply all skills and knowledge outlined in the F.B.T.P. handbook. The only other evidence of an induction model exemplifying depth in curriculum content is the subject workshop emphasis of the two

British D.E.S. models.

These two induction programmes emphasised a curricular component within the external-based workshops. However, the application of the theoretical concepts by the beginning teacher to the curriculum and instructional activities within the classroom was not always easily facilitated. The major reason identified by Davis (1979) was the fact that tutors of the probationers were not participants in the workshops, hence their supervisory practices did not incorporate effectively the curriculum workshop content.

All other induction programmes provided a breadth of curriculum content. New Zealand, Australia, and Canada aimed to provide a broad base of instructional programming that included instructional, subject-oriented and professional content. However, the workshops and individual tutorial activities did not emphasise any long-term and indepth assignments or classroom-based instructional projects.

c) Design of Programme (Faculty vis-a-vis Contractual vis-a-vis Teacher Initiated)

All induction programmes researched were initially designed by teacher educators representing the various stakeholder agencies. In Britain, U.S. and Canada the major programme design was originally established and mandated by the state or provincial educational authority. All districts were required to submit an induction programme that would conform to the authorities' guidelines but also reflect the unique professional development resources and programme options of each district. However, all three countries' programmes did not incorporate input on the design of the programme from the beginning teachers themselves.



In Australia and New Zealand the curriculum framework of the induction programme were designed by educational authorities at the national level. However, these two countries not only relied upon survey results from beginning teachers to acquire ideas for content and programme structure but also the programme was not to be absolutely defined or operationalised by the tutors and principals until they had met with the beginning teachers who they would be supervising. Latitude for teacher initiated programming was therefore enhanced in these two countries.

One obvious design component that was absent from all induction programmes was the contractual format of instructional programming. Regardless of Australia's and New Zealand's more open approach to teacher initiated programming, opportunities for individualized professional contracts were not evidenced.

d) Flexibility of Programme (Required vis-a-vis Elective)

Programme requirements differed sharply among the induction models. The U.S. F.B.T.P. is presented as a totally mandated programme. Electives are non-existent and demonstrated competency within each of the six domains must be completed successfully by the beginning teacher prior to receiving permanent certification. British and Australian models were more flexibly distributed, with programme requirements being exemplified by attendance and project completion rather than by specific demonstration of skill or knowledge. Elective choice was evident by the beginning teacher having the opportunity to independently select what curricular workshop programme or instructional supervisory focus would be

most applicable to their individual needs.

The Canadian and New Zealand models were characterized primarily by the elective nature of their instructional content. Selection and pursuit of the induction programme options by the beginning teacher were entirely open to them. Despite a curriculum content that afforded guidelines for both beginning teachers and supervisory personnel, the electivity of instructional or curricular emphasis was reflective of the beginning teacher seeking counsel and then developing an appropriate induction plan.

### 3. Curricular Structure

The translation of the curricular emphases with the underlying curricular organising principle enables the curricular structure of the induction programme to be more easily identified. For each country many of the curricular structures were similar, however, some factors were unique to individual induction models. Figure 15 (p. 247) has an overview of this documentation.

It was evident that the academic requirements and the non-flexibility in programme options were only applicable to the U.S. model. Florida's B.T.P. is a very technically oriented programme. Hence precision in curricular structure provides marginal latitude for different programme options within the various districts. In the other four countries latitude of programming structure has resulted in each region or district developing their own induction programme format. Although each country's programme has a similar overall organising principle and curricular emphases the curricular requirements do vary from district to district, state to

Figure 15

<u>Summary of Induction Programmes'</u> <u>Curricular Structure Components</u>		
Components	Country	Descriptive Summary
1. Academic requirements of induction programme	U.S.	Clearly specified requirements
	Britain	general overview of intentions
	Australia	
	New Zealand	
2. Alternate programme options	Canada	
	U.S.	no flexibility in programme options
	Britain	latitude of programming resulted in each region or district generating own option of induction
	Australia	
3. Entry requirement for admission into induction programme	New Zealand	
	Canada	
	U.S.	all beginning teachers must have degree and pre-service certificate in education
	Britain	beginning teachers must have pre-service certificate in education but varying 3, 4 or 5 years of post-secondary preparation
4. Reduced teaching load for probationers and tutors	Australia	
	New Zealand	
	Canada	
5. Programme format	U.S.	reducing teaching load for probationers of varying degrees
	Australia	course work, in-service sessions, tutorials, seminars, visitations
	Britain	
	Australia	
6. Supervision requirements	New Zealand	in-service sessions, tutorials, seminars, visitations
	Canada	
	U.S.	tutorials, seminars
	U.S.	expectation that all supervisors or mentors provide regular supervision of beginning teacher
	Britain	not all programme regularly used formalized supervisory technique
	Australia	
	New Zealand	
	Canada	



state. In Australia, New Zealand and Britain an emphasis on flexible programme structure was encouraged by the state or district authorities.

Entry expectations for all teachers admitted into an induction programme required each beginning teacher to have a pre-service teaching certificate, although in the U.S. and in Canada's A.I.T.P. all induction candidates required a degree. Applicants entering induction in the other three countries would have various levels of post-secondary education including no degree or degrees outside of education.

The reduced load of teaching afforded the Canadian, New Zealand and British beginning teachers greater flexibility in developing programme diversity in their induction activities. Course work (in Britain only), regular supervision sessions, in-service sessions, tutorials, seminars, and visitations to other schools and classes were programme options available to all beginning teachers. These options in Britain and New Zealand were complemented by similar reductions in workload for the tutors. Hence, the flexibility of programme options allowing attendance by both tutor and beginning teacher were enhanced. Canada's A.I.T.P. gave the beginning teacher ample time for induction activity within their reduced load assignment. However their supervisors were not given a reduced teaching load but rather were given access to substitute teaching funds for in-service sessions on supervision. In Australia and the U.S. reduced teaching load for mentors was minimal.

Regular supervision, including the preparation of both formative and summative documentation, was most evident in the F.B.T.P. in the U.S. Supervisory practices in the other

countries were more informal. The underlying intention was that each beginning teacher would have regular visitations. However, given that the syllabus for supervisory programming was not mandated, supervision practices would vary from school to school, district to district. In Britain the tutor's project (Bolam and McMahon, 1979) did provide in-depth programme guidelines and resources for supervisory practice. However, limited funding for reduced teaching loads and insufficient in-service sessions prevented this material from being implemented by the tutors in many L.E.A.'s.

### Analysis of Governance Factors

Cushman's governance factors were described as an evolving process that complemented various organisational components. However, the extent of importance these governance factors assumed in each educational jurisdiction provided interesting consequences to the development of the induction programmes. Figure 16 (p. 250) summarises the implications of the three governance factors: policy, funding, assessment and certification.

#### 1. Policy

Policy development, administration and monitoring have a major impact on both the formality and centralizing orientation of the induction programmes. In Britain, Australia and New Zealand each country developed broad academic and organisational policies but specific policy development and programme guidelines were left to the individual district, or sometimes the individual school. Decentralizing the development of specific policies was a purposeful act by the national

Figure 16

Summary of Induction Programmes' Governance Factors

<u>Country</u>	<u>Descriptive Summary</u>		
	Policy	Funding	Assessment and Certification
-----			
Britain	National programming guidelines and local LEA policies and procedures	Apart from DES funding of two major projects all financial requirements for operating programmes are derived from LEAS	-Probationary success of beginning teacher's evaluated by school head and induction advisory personnel -No clear assessment criteria
Australia	National programming guidelines and local state and district policies and procedures	National allotments to States but funding grants are made available for in-service but district or Schools determine proportion for induction	as above
New Zealand	as above	as above	as above
Canada (Alberta)	-Provincial policy and programming guidelines complemented by local programme design -no national guidelines	Funding formula is a consistently applied to all districts and school systems i.e. cost per beginning teacher plus in-service supplement	as above, however, some teachers will be hired to permanent staff without having completed induction programme
U.S.	-State policy and regulations complemented by local county monitoring and adaptation options -no national guidelines	as above	Evaluation of beginning teachers is completed by supervisory team, including mentor -Performance based assessment criteria is mandatory



body. Furthermore the national authority expected that each state and their respective school districts would establish induction committees that would develop these programme policies. In most cases these local induction committees were comprised of various representatives of the teaching profession, school district administration, district or regional trustees and university or college faculty.

In Canada and the U.S. national induction policy is not evident consequently the provinces and the states in these two countries are responsible for developing their own induction programme. In Alberta the A.I.T.P. was coordinated with Alberta manpower policy. Hence the academic and employment regulations were mandatory for each school district that became involved in the programme. Similar circumstances of local policy development occurred in the U.S. programmes. For example, in Florida the local county had to administer its own programmes and create unique policies where appropriate. Nevertheless state policies and guidelines pertaining to funding, assessment criteria and in-service programming were to be adhered to by the counties when administering these policies. Local committees in each district were set up in Florida and Alberta similar to the British, Australian and New Zealand models.

## 2. Funding

Apart from the British D.E.S. funded schemes in Liverpool and Northumberland only Australia and New Zealand adopted national induction funding policies. Unfortunately, the induction programme activities in Australia and New Zealand had to be pro-rated with staff development funding priorities of the

district or schools. Hence the limited funding that was afforded these two southern hemisphere countries for professional development was not necessarily directly or regularly applied to induction.

In the United States, Canada, and Britain induction programme initiatives were directly funded by the local state, province or county authority. Specific funding recognized that staff development programming benefits could assist the supervisory teachers and administrative personnel as well as the beginning teachers. For example, induction budget items such as substitute costs, in-service programming, and administrative costs would be incorporated into the overall staff development budget.

In Florida and Alberta these two programmes received substantial induction budgets to operate their programmes. However in Britain (not including the D.E.S. projects) and Australia the financial support was not large enough to mount extensive induction programme options. New Zealand meanwhile did recognize the need to support induction programming by providing .2 release time for all beginning teachers.

### 3. Assessment and Certification

The presence of clearly defined assessment criteria was evidenced only in the United States. Furthermore the emphasis placed on summative evaluation and documented performance accountability complemented the assessment policy guidelines. The Canadian, British, Australian and New Zealand induction models all had induction certification expectations but the evaluative guidelines were more open-ended. Reliance upon professional judgements of the supervisory personnel or the

traditional inspectorial report writing by principals exemplified this assessment process.

Except for the Canadian model, whose beginning teachers could secure jobs prior to completing the induction programme, all beginning teachers in the other countries would receive permanent teacher certification following their probationary year. In the U.S. and Canada state/provincial certification would be granted. In Britain, New Zealand and Australia national certification was awarded. It should be emphasised that, apart from the Florida programme where job opportunities were abundant, successful graduates from the other induction programmes did not necessarily acquire full-time employment following their first year of teaching.

### Analysis of the Organisational Components

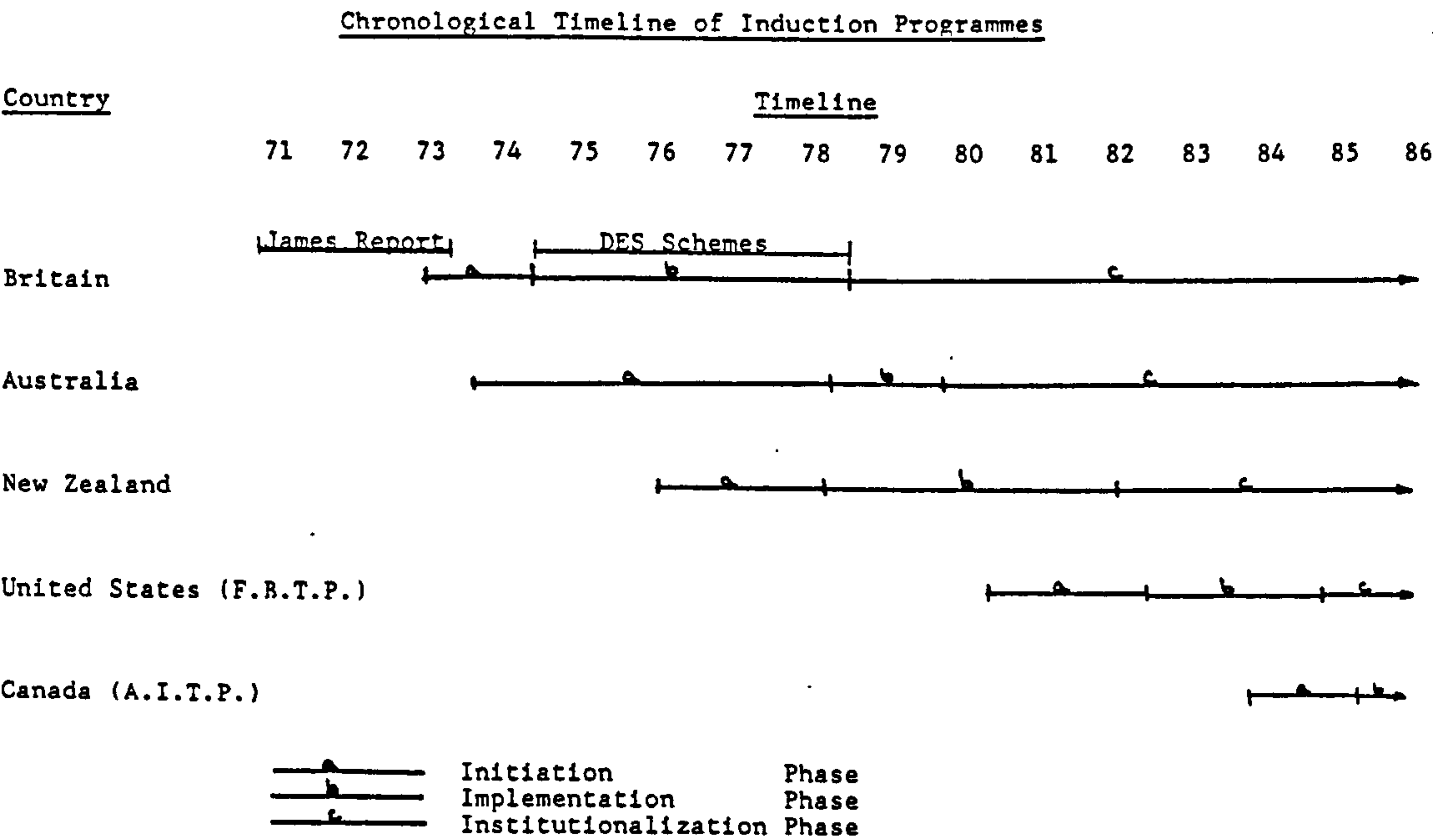
Berman's model of educational change and implementation provides the basis for analysing the organisational components of the induction programme models. However, given the variation in the initiation, implementation and institutionalization timelines of each induction programme, it is important to draw upon key characteristics of Fullan's (1982) adoption factor typology to analyse these organisational components. Appendix I identifies prototype examples of practice that would apply to the adoption of induction programmes.

#### 1. Initiation Phase

It seems appropriate to begin the analysis of this phase by providing a chronological time line of the induction models that have been described in this thesis (Figure 17, p. 254). For example, the British D.E.S. induction programmes had a major impact upon both Australia and New Zealand in establish-



Figure 17



ing their own national programmes. In turn these three countries documented their research and programme policy which consequently had a direct impact upon the establishment of induction programmes in the U.S. Finally, although Alberta has established the only formal induction programme in Canada, the information of induction programming from the other four countries has influenced the discussion of potentialities in teacher education among other provinces in Canada. This evolutionary information and promotional process from country to country must be considered as a viable initiation variable when induction programming begins. As Fullan suggests, access to information must be available at both the institutional policy level as well as the classroom level.

Given the influence of the James Report upon the introduction of induction in Britain, and consequently Australia

and New Zealand, it is obvious that specific induction legislative policy becomes crucial to the initiation phase. Certainly the Florida and Alberta models both required legislative policy at the state level to ensure the establishment of a formalized induction programme. These policy guidelines ensured that appropriate funding would be afforded the project. In addition the availability of adequate funding allowed the educational change process to move from the initiation phase to the implementation phase more quickly. An example of this is that the Alberta programme received its funding within ten months from when the initial planning took place. Whereas in Australia regular funding, that would assist the major intensive implementation of induction programming, was not allocated until four to five years after the initiation of some informal induction practices that had been carried on spasmodically throughout the country.

Collaborative endorsement by the various stakeholders in teacher education is also another important factor in promoting the initiation of an induction programme. Recognition of the agencies that traditionally have been involved with pre-service and in-service education is necessary if ownership of new reform or innovation is to move from the initiation to the implementation phase. Good examples of this occurring were in New Zealand and in the U.S. Florida programme. Both jurisdictions incorporated the various representatives of the educational community to participate in their programme planning. Alberta, Liverpool and to some degree certain Australian states did not receive initially a total endorsement by the stakeholders for the establishment of the programmes. In Liverpool this proved to have a most negative

consequence given that the induction programme did not continue once the pilot implementation phase was completed.

## 2. Implementation Phase

The second category of analysis of the organisational components is the implementation phase of the induction programme. Six implementation factors were evidenced as critical to the successful adoption of induction.

a) Release time for beginning teachers - This factor seems a crucial element if major induction activities are to be afforded the beginning teacher. All programmes recognized the importance of this element. However, New Zealand, Britain and Canada's induction programmes supported this more emphatically by giving the beginning teachers more released time.

b) Release time for supervisory personnel - Another crucial element is the release time made available for supervisory personnel, particularly the mentors. Whether it be a regularized amount of time such as evidenced in the New Zealand and British models or the availability of substitute funds such as in Canada's A.I.T.P., the professional development activities of the supervisory personnel require release time if their tasks are to be implemented successfully. Certainly some programmes, i.e. Australia, felt that in-service programming after school hours is preferable to not offering any programming at all. Also as Fullan suggests advocacy by administrators at the school and school district level to fund such programming as supervisory in-service adds recognition to the importance of this endeavour. A professional incentive for teachers to participate emanates.

c) Induction handbooks - One common implementation



factor in all programmes was the preparation of the handbooks on induction practice guidelines, programme content and assessment procedures. The F.B.T.P. handbook was the most comprehensive given the specific detail required because of the performance-based competencies. However, each handbook of the other induction models provided a document that would both instruct and inform all participants thus ensuring similar information was being given to beginning teachers, mentors, supervising principals and school administrators alike.

d) Induction programme newsletters - A complementary information component to the induction handbook is the regular circulation of induction programme newsletters or bulletins. These documents provide a regular update of information concerning all dimensions of the programme for all induction participants. All induction models provided this information. The New Zealand and British models best exemplified this practice.

e) Local induction coordinating committees - Inherent in every induction model is the existence of a local advisory committee that comprises all educational stakeholders. The implementation of the induction programme, not only in its introductory phase, but also during subsequent years of operation becomes an important task for the induction committees. Besides the local district committee there were state or regional committees in all countries. Evidence of collaborative planning among district and state jurisdictions were best exemplified in Northumberland and Western Australia. Here the committees assumed a strong proactive role in expanding and improving the parameters of the induction policies. As Fullan

suggests this will only occur if the committee structure is given an opportunity to problem solve and assume ownership of the decisions.

f) District induction consultants - Whether these individuals are perceived as consultants, coordinators or managers, research evidence in Britain, the U.S. and New Zealand indicates that appointing full-time personnel to administer the induction programme is most important. These change agents according to Fullan are the instrumental catalyst for ensuring that all other adoption factors are implemented. In the U.S. Florida model the project coordinators were responsible primarily for conducting the in-service sessions for beginning teachers and tutors. In Northumberland not only was the in-service programme the coordinator's responsibility but also he was the individual responsible for university liaison and course development design. Some of Australia's induction programmes also had someone identified for this job but too often this person carried this responsibility among many others. States in Australia which did not have a full-time coordinator, i.e. Northern Territories, consequently lacked a comprehensive induction programme.

In summary, all six implementation factors are prevalent within all models. However the quality of these factors vary. Nevertheless, the predominance of these elements suggests that effective implementation of induction is a result of good financial support, strong local organisational structures and industrious change agents. Fullan suggests that the existence and quality of the education innovation such as induction must develop a legacy of sophistication through continuous evaluation and constructive revision. The evidence of this fact will



be discussed in the next section, the institutionalization phase of the change process.

### Institutionalization Phase

As illustrated in Figure 17 (p. 254) the institutionalization of induction programmes appears to be prevalent in all countries but Canada. However, the sophistication or programmatic status of each model is remarkably different. Figure 18 (p. 260) summarises the comparative evidence of the institutionalization of each model.

The Canadian, U.S. and New Zealand models are thriving. The analysis of data indicates that there are various reasons. These reasons include i) the incorporation of induction into the continuum of the teacher education professional framework; ii) available release time for participating personnel, i.e., Canada and New Zealand; iii) the development of new induction materials, i.e., instructional, supervision; iv) local education committees continue to have an important profile and administrative role; and v) most important, the continuation of funding to support all the induction activities has become an inherent cost of teacher education programming. Although each of these three programmes is academically, and to a large degree organisationally different, the prevalence of these five institutionalization factors among the three countries' models contributes to their successful continuation.

In Britain and Australia, however, funding for teacher education has been dramatically cut and teachers are not in such high demand as in the 1970's. Nevertheless, the survival of some programmes such as the Northumberland and Avon models in Britain and the Queensland and Tasmania models in Australia



Figure 18

Institutionalization Status of  
Induction Programmes - December 1985

Programme	Status	Reasons
Florida BTP	Major presence in teacher education programming in this state	Continued funding at substantial levels Political support and professional Beginning teachers are being hired
Alberta ITP	Major presence in teacher education programming in this province. However only until June 1987	Two year pilot programming receiving full political and financial support Employment programme guarantees at least 10 months of work for graduates
Liverpool	Very limited presence in LEA	No national funding and minimal administrative support from LEA Oversupply of teachers
Northumberland	Continuous programme presence in LEA	Maintained local organising committee Continued professional development of tutors and probationers
Australia	Variable levels of programme sophistication	Some states are hiring teachers and have maintained induction practices Some states are placing more funds into retraining and other in-service initiatives
New Zealand	Continuous programming	Hiring procedures continue enabling probationary teachers to work for at least one year even if there is an over supply of teachers Release time formula continues

are strong testimony to three additional institutionalization factors. First, all programmes have key organisational personnel who are dedicated to maintaining the organisation structure of the induction programme as well as committed to the ideals of the academic content. In Northumberland, for example, two individuals, McCabe and Taylor, representing the University of Newcastle and the Northumberland L.E.A. respectively, have been with the programme from 1973 to 1985. Continuity of this length of involvement by senior individuals who have designed, organised and evaluated the induction programme appears most critical. Certainly they exemplify the high profile change agent role that each induction programme requires if programming is to be implemented successfully.

Second, the continuation of national or regional meetings that discuss and monitor the ongoing development of induction programmes must be prevalent if institutionalization of induction is to occur. In Australia, despite difficulties in obtaining funds to expand induction programming regular, conferences and symposia are held to review the induction practices that are being undertaken in the various states. Supervisory practices, instructional content for in-service sessions and suggestions for strengthening induction within staff development programming are examples of relevant topics that have been examined regularly within a national forum. The publicity emanating from such meetings also continues to provide a positive promotional profile for induction programmes in Australia.

Third, the continuation of research and evaluative programming is most evident in these regions where induction continues. The legacy of induction practice in Northumberland

and Avon for example have benefited from the continuous research and evaluative activities that have validated the importance of the induction process. New programme developments in supervisory in-service for tutors and the improvement in the induction activities that beginning teachers may experience both in and out of school are two examples where research and evaluation have not only improved the quality of induction programming but also have promoted the continuation of such practices.

### Analysis of Programme Evaluation

All induction models except for Canada's A.I.T.P. have completed evaluation and research activities regarding the effects and outcomes of induction programmes in their respective countries. The individual summaries of this evaluation and research information have been outlined in the presentation of data section. Therefore the focus of this analysis is to identify if there are some common themes or programmatic issues evidenced in the research and evaluation documentation. Each academic, governance and organisational component of induction is addressed.

#### 1. Academic

i) Induction programme activities do make a difference. All principals and supervisory personnel have stated in the F.B.T.P., the Northumberland project and the New Zealand programmes that beginning teachers are more competent and show more confidence in their instructional tasks by the end of their first year when they have completed an induction programme. Furthermore, continuous supervisory support by mentors



of beginning teachers has been reported by the beginning teachers as a most positive benefit of the induction programme. All countries researched have documented this same response by the participating beginning teachers.

ii) Opportunities for beginning teachers to receive responsibility for their own assessment was reported as unsatisfactory by beginning teachers in British and U.S. programmes. Authoritarian assessment procedures were perceived by beginning teachers as problematic for two reasons. One, there was no formal opportunity for them to contribute to their overall assessment of their instruction during their year of teaching. Hence they had to rely upon the summative reports of their evaluation visitations by principals or induction consultants. Two, the visitations by the principals or other evaluative supervisory personnel were too infrequent. Hence judgements were made by these individuals without having observed the regular day to day progress of the beginning teacher. The general preference by the beginning teachers was to have their regular mentor or supervisor contribute to their final evaluation. This procedure would ensure that a regular observer of their instructional performance would be providing data. Moreover the ongoing formative data would also enhance the quality of evaluative information. It should be noted that these self-assessment practices were not in evidence either in Australia, New Zealand or Canada.

iii) In-Service programming for mentors was widely supported for the benefits it offered the supervisory teachers. Not only was there a direct benefit to the beginning teacher by having more knowledgeable and skillful teachers act as their supervisors but also the professional development

opportunities the experienced teachers received, i.e., supervision, instructional and curricular programming, evaluation, enhanced their own teaching acumen.

## 2. Governance

i) Funding support by national, state and/or district agencies was seen as critical if induction programmes were to continue and improve. Expenditures in the area of release time for beginning teachers, in-service sessions that both mentor and beginning teacher could jointly attend, and financial grants to undertake more extensive research and evaluation were examples of important funding priorities. The Florida and New Zealand programmes were good examples of such funding practices.

ii) Preference for more standardized induction programme content was offered as a method by which teacher assessment could be more easily regularized. Induction programmes in Britain, Australia and New Zealand identified that improved assessment criteria would enhance the quality of the supervisory focus and the data collection techniques that a mentor or other supervisory individual could provide the beginning teacher.

## 3. Organisation

i) Programme articulation between induction programmes and pre-service programmes was perceived by all programmes as a critical organisation issue as much as it was perceived as an academic issue. Irrespective of the important pedagogical linkage between the two stages of teacher education, organisational structures that provide improved communication, consul-

tation, research and programme design are recommended as essential. In addition, staff development programmes must be offered in schools that see induction practice as an inevitable component of the programme. Resource development, peer supervision activities and collegial curriculum planning were recommended as sample topics that could be organised to benefit both induction and staff development programmes. This type of programming would further enhance the linkage between induction and in-service.

ii) It is recommended that release time for beginning teachers should be organised so that timetabling conflicts such as inconvenient scheduling with the mentors' instructional responsibilities, and complicated teaching assignments of beginning teachers do not minimize the opportunities for induction activities. The administrative leadership in the school is seen as a critical factor in ensuring that beginning teachers are given full opportunity to pursue their induction year as a time for professional growth not simply an experience of survival.

### Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the analysis of data in four categories: academic, governance, organisational and programme evaluation. Each category was examined within the various matrix of factors as described in chapter 6. The analysis of data provided a general summary of information as well as a more detailed description of unique comparisons and differences that were exemplified by the five countries' programmes. A chronological timeline of the organisational change phases of the various induction programmes was also presented.



It was evident that no two induction programmes were identical. However, various academic, governance and organisational factors did show similarities between and among various countries. In the analysis of the organisational components, for example, the events that transpired in the initiation and implementation phase were very similar for most induction programmes. However, the dimensions of the project, particularly the quantity of funding enormously differed and the contrasting consequences for the institutionalization phase were evidenced. Fullan's adoption factors of educational change were also used to assist the analysis of the organisational components. The chapter concluded with a summary of the similar themes that had emanated from the evaluative and research data that had been obtained from the various induction programmes by the evaluative personnel of each country or region.

The interpretations of the analysis of data as it pertains to the research questions as proposed in chapter one will now be examined.

## Chapter 13

### CASE STUDY ANALYSIS REGARDING TWO MAJOR RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The two key questions reflective of the purposes of the thesis will now be addressed. As outlined in chapter one, the first question concerns the confluence of teacher education and the role induction might play in enhancing this interrelationship among pre-service, induction and in-service programmes. The second question concerns the professional development opportunities, that promote self-directed learning and continuing education, that may be enhanced by induction programmes. This chapter will discuss these two questions as it pertains to the interpretation of the research data. The issue of confluence will be addressed in four sub-topics: academic framework, curriculum objectives, theory-practice content and staff development programming. The issue of professional options for self-directed learning will be addressed in two sub-topics: assessment and supervision, and self evaluation.

#### Confluence: The Role Induction May Assume

As the literature review suggests, the establishment of a confluent teacher education process among pre-service, induction and in-service programmes underlies the fundamental perspective that proponents for reforming teacher education have proposed. Specifically enhancement of continuing professional development for teachers is considered a major objective in establishing this confluence. However, additional educational objectives such as i) the establishment of sequential pedagogical training for teachers; ii) the operationalizing of

collaborative institutional programming for teacher education agencies; and iii) the improvement of school practice for staff development, teacher assessment and pupil performance are all perceived as achievable if confluence in teacher education is realized.

In this study all countries' induction models incorporated one or more of these educational objectives in developing their induction programmes. Considering that induction has been considered the weak link within the confluence of teacher education it was not surprising that educational institutions in the respective countries or states endorsed induction as the vehicle to integrate the three stages of teacher professional development. In Britain, Australia and New Zealand the rationale of induction programmes incorporated the theme of continuous professional development and collaborative institutional planning. As noted in the presentation of data, the curricular organising principles of these induction programmes all emphasised the teacher development theme. Cognitive and affective growth of teachers were inherent in the planning of these programmes. In essence a holistic orientation to professional development was proposed. However, in the U.S. and Canada the improvement of teaching performance among beginning teachers was a higher priority within the rationale of establishing induction programmes. Selected competencies relating to instructional skill and ability represented this curricular organising principle. Regardless of the differing curricular orientation the establishment of induction programmes imply that these factors should be prevalent if confluence is to be incorporated successfully.



### Academic Framework

First a sequential professional and pedagogical syllabus should be present. This framework should incorporate ideally an incremental curriculum structure that in turn would complement the curriculum organising principles and emphases within each stage of teacher education.

No country has actually accomplished this form of confluence, however, the State of Florida has achieved partially by adopting the State's 24 generic performance competencies of pre-service certification within the F.B.T.P. It would appear therefore that Florida's establishment of a continuous teacher education syllabus is based upon: i) having a set of teacher performance competencies already established in pre-service programmes; ii) having the state legislature mandate and finance this academic framework as integral to their induction programme; iii) having a three-level teacher performance measurement system incorporated within the F.B.T.P.; and iv) using the F.B.T.P. as a baseline for establishing a five-year renewable certificate performance programme.

Meanwhile some other states in the U.S. as well as the other countries that have established induction programmes have not been as successful in developing a confluent academic framework. The main reason is that a clearly articulated academic syllabus has not been identified nor have major efforts been undertaken to design such a programme. Induction programmes in Britain, Australia, New Zealand and Canada have encouraged local regions or school districts to plan their own curricular organising principles, structure and emphases. Hence this perceived need to decentralize ownership of induc-

tion programme development among the local induction committees conversely limits the integration of an induction syllabus with the national or regional pre-service institutions. Furthermore, each pre-service institution traditionally safeguards their own academic prerogative to develop their own teacher preparation programme. Academic, professional and practicum components of these pre-service institutions have been shown to not change in any concrete manner to accommodate the introduction of the new academic parameters of the induction programmes. Induction programming is therefore established in isolation, both pedagogically and structurally, from the pre-service phase.

Given these factors, along with a strong determination by both Australia and New Zealand to not adopt a performance-based model, the governance structures within teacher education in these countries do inhibit the opportunity for the development of a continuous professional and academic syllabus. The values and limitations of establishing a centrally mandated academic framework hence become an important issue to resolve prior to formally designing a confluent syllabus among the three stages of teacher education.

In addition programmatic linkage of induction practices with professional development activities for beginning teachers, commencing at their second year of teaching, are not prevalent. In essence the induction practices conclude the formal and specifically designed programmes that would attend to the needs of the beginning professional. However, some programmes, such as North Carolina and Oklahoma, are introducing mandated staff development programming for all teachers that would allow for professional development options to be



organised for second and third year teachers.

### Curricular Objectives

Confluence of pedagogy among the three stages of teacher education may also be realized through the curricular objectives of induction programme content. However, upon review of the curricular objectives of each induction model three themes emerge from this data. First, as identified in Figure 19 (p.272) the common core of curricular objectives emphasise a technical skill and knowledge-based syllabus. These objectives include planning, instructional organisation and development, presentation of subject matter communication and pupil assessment. Interestingly these objectives also appear consistently in most pre-service programme syllabus. Two differing implications may be considered. One, induction programme content may build sequentially on these topics addressing those areas of weakness or enrichment that applies to the individual needs of the beginning teacher. Hence a confluent relationship of programme content would develop. Two, induction programme content is redundant and linear subsequently repeating the baseline syllabus of pre-service preparation. Hence minimal progress is made in enriching the pedagogical orientation of a confluent relationship between pre-service and induction.

Second, upon review of the curriculum objectives professional socialization - orienting the beginning teacher to the school, school system and profession - rates at least once in each induction programme. This implies that transitional experiences and introductory professional expectations are addressed in the induction year. Consequently the preliminary socialization process from the pre-service practica can be



Figure 19

Curriculum Objectives of Induction Programme Content

Objective	Britain	Australia	New Zealand	U.S.	Canada
1. Planning	X	X		X	X
2. Management of Student Conduct		X	X	X	
3. Instructional Organisation and Development	X	X	X	X	X
4. Presentation of Subject Matter	X		X	X	X
5. Communication		X	X	X	X
6. Pupil Assessment	X	X	X	X	X
7. Information About School District and Profession	X	X	X	X	
8. Participation in Professional Activities and In-Service	X		X		X
9. Teacher Self-Evaluation		X	X		
10. Diagnosis of Student Needs					X
11. Design and Implementation Extra Curricular Activities	X				X

enhanced and more specifically focussed for the beginning teacher during their participation in the induction programme.

Third, teacher self-evaluation is only identified within two of the programmes' content objectives. This fact is somewhat surprising given that the underlying rationale for all induction models is the promotion of continuous professional development. Means and processes of professional growth are only recognized formally with the Australian and New Zealand programmes. Hence, one may conclude that professional socialization and professional self-assessment do not appear as important priorities in experiential practice as they appear as important priorities in theoretical rationale.

#### Theory-Practice Programme Content

Pedagogical confluence of the curricular content within pre-service, induction and in-service should reflect a theory-practice dimension. Pre-service programmes in particular are comprised of both theoretical and practical studies. As discussed earlier in chapter 2, pre-service programming is normally comprised of theoretical studies in generic skills, subject oriented pedagogy, curriculum development and foundations. Whereas the practical component of pre-service offers experiential programming in a classroom and school environment where the student teacher may test, analyse and incorporate, where appropriate, the theoretical constructs and knowledge base of professional pedagogy. The incorporation of a similar theory-practice dimension may be posited as a natural continuum of professional studies within induction programmes. The pedagogical confluence between pre-service and induction would then be greatly enhanced.

However, except for the British D.E.S. sponsored models the pedagogical structure of the induction models presented in this research did not emphasise a theory-practice balance. Generally all induction programming placed an emphasis on experiential and practical activities. The curricular emphasis was shown to be primarily classroom-based. The locus of learning evolved around the supervisory activities of the beginning teacher and mentor. This greater emphasis placed on the practical must be recognized as an inevitable reality of induction programming. Beginning teachers within their probationary year are expected to develop and implement a full schedule of classes as well as assume the responsibility of managing a home room class. Hence, theoretical in-service workshop sessions will not be perceived by the beginning teachers as immediately relevant to their daily survival in the classroom, nor as easily timetabled within the regular schedule of teaching assignments.

The British D.E.S. scheme overcame this dilemma by organising both internal and external programme components within the induction model. The external component emphasised a workshop programme that provided theoretical studies in curricular and instructional dimensions. Moreover, this external programming was regularly scheduled every week and was timetabled within the overall teaching schedule of the beginning teacher. With appropriate finances to cover costs of release time and with creative planning to accommodate theoretical programme components induction programmes can realistically design a balanced theory-practice programme.

However, it should be clarified that theoretical programming within induction does not need to reside simply in a



workshop setting. Other opportunities for theoretical analysis and knowledge base development for the beginning teacher could occur within: i) post observation supervision meetings where supervisory personnel explore practical issues of classroom instruction in the context of a theoretical framework; ii) problem solving activities that encourage beginning teachers to examine both the practical and theoretical dimension of the instructional and curricular task; iii) school seminars for both mentors and beginning teachers where discussion on theoretical perspectives on classroom activity are regularly held; iv) self-assessment tasks that require the beginning teacher to reflect upon their teaching activities, provide an assessment of their progress and then present an analytical overview regarding their evaluative comments. All of these activities could be enhanced by in-service workshop activities but essentially all of these activities could be performed within the context of the school or classroom environment.

### Staff Development Programming

Confluence in teacher education presumes that professional development opportunities should be made available to teachers throughout each stage of their careers. Given the pedagogical framework of pre-service, given the potential pedagogical activities that may be incorporated into induction, and given that the premise of continuous in-service education is a principle that all induction programmes have endorsed, the issue of interconnecting induction with in-service education remains to be enhanced in all countries.

Confluence in the teacher education framework presumes that professional development opportunities should be made

available to teachers throughout each stage of their careers. Given that the pedagogical structure of pre-service and induction programmes do have the potential of incorporating professional studies, both theoretical and practical, into the first two stages of this framework the issue of interconnecting induction with in-service education seems equally possible. For example, the pedagogical and organisational parameters of induction do have a structure to complement the programmatic endeavours of in-service education. This structure is school-based staff development. Both programmes rely on cooperative venturing among teachers, are normally implemented at a school-focussed level, require a broad pedagogical content, need adaptable organisational structures and reflect developmental supervisory practices to function successfully. In essence, a well designed and implemented induction programme inherently interconnects with a quality staff development programme.

For example, the U.S. models of induction, Georgia, Oklahoma, North Carolina and Florida are programmatically connected with the staff development programmes. Performance-based models of mandatory continuing education within staff development ensure that teachers demonstrate proficiency in basic instructional knowledge and skill throughout all phases of their teaching career. For example as described earlier in chapter 10, the Oklahoma legislature approved a bill in 1980 that a staff development programme would be present in all school districts providing entry-year assistance to beginning teachers for at least one year. Furthermore, this staff development programme legislation guarantees that beginning teachers will continue with mandated professional development



programmes in subsequent years of teaching.

To encourage this confluent relationship between induction and in-service staff development programmes certain programmatic factors must be prevalent. First a staff development programme would be characterized by teachers participating in the planning, problem solving, decision making and implementing of the in-service activities. Teachers would be encouraged and supported by building and district administrators to assume ownership of their professional development. This would necessitate that the staff development context needs to be oriented to enrich professional experiences as well as to ensure task accomplishments. Such an orientation would enable the staff development programme to establish an open climate for decision making, problem solving and developing a more overall responsive communication among all teachers. Beginning teachers working within such a positive staff development environment also would be able to more easily confront the instructional or procedural problems confronting them and in turn build trust and improved understanding with the experienced teachers. This environment is most prevalent when the principal is supportive of staff development activities while communicating clear and consistent school policies that would endorse teacher-based oriented programmes.

Second, another confluent characteristic in positive staff development practice would be the fact that staff development projects would be incorporated into an encompassing professional development plan. Although the staff development plan may have various programme goals for individual or different groups of teachers, the overall framework of the in-service activities would be complementary to a major



theme or planning process. Hence the beginning teacher's involvement in induction programming would be commensurate upon their initiation into the overall in-service activities of the school. The longitudinal orientation to this perspective of staff development would ensure that provisions for professional growth activities at various stages of the teacher's career cycle would be manifested. Consequently recognition must be afforded each teacher's individual needs dependent on the specific phase of their professional career, i.e., induction, beginning years, five-ten years, ten-twenty years, career wind-down.

Third, staff development programming would evidence many school-focussed activities using various instructional, problem solving and workshop formats. For example, demonstration, modelling, feedback and coaching would be inherent in the staff development programmes on a regular basis. This would not only ensure greater learning by the teacher but it would also accentuate the validity of long-term programming rather than the one shot professional development fix. Teachers would be encouraged to develop staff development activities that would provide opportunities for interaction, peer support and informal seminars that would encourage teacher discussion and reflection.

All these forms of school focussed professional development activities would encourage the beginning teacher to enter an instructionally active and supportive professional environment. Furthermore, these staff development practices should include opportunities for beginning teachers to practice innovative teaching methods in both modified and authentic

instructional settings. Confluence between induction and in-service, both pedagogically and organisationally, would have a greater opportunity to be realized if these three programmatic factors were inherent in the context of the school's staff development programmes.

In summary, the factors contributing to a pedagogical confluence among the three stages of teacher education must incorporate four programmatic elements. First, there must be a continuous academic framework with a sequential professional syllabus being present. Second, curriculum objectives should reflect an introductory orientation to the profession, a lateral open-ended instructional and curricular focus and a self-evaluative perspective. Third, theory-practice content within all three stages should be organised so that experiential activities incorporate a theoretical perspective both in the beginning teacher's instructional practice as well as with the complementing supervisory and professional induction activities. Fourth, school-based staff development programming must be designed to enhance the continuing professional development of the beginning teacher beyond their induction year.

#### Professional Options for Self-Directed Learning

To implement programmatic change in teacher education through the introduction of induction the beginning teacher must be fully incorporated into the process and become an enthusiastic participant. To accomplish this the beginning teacher must be given the opportunity to develop his analytical abilities, individual instructional style, philosophical openness and self-evaluative skills. As discussed in the

review of literature, beginning teachers do not always enter into an enriching induction programme that enhances these professional skills and abilities. Unfortunately, the beginning teacher is sometimes received into the profession not as the celebrated debutante but rather as a sacrificial lamb subjected to inferior or non-existent induction practices. Hopefully the initiation, exploration and maturation stages of a teacher's professional career would encompass a developmental pathway of professional self-directedness and self-evaluation that reflect the values of independent choice. However, the complexities of the teaching process and the myriad of teaching responsibilities challenge the teacher to attain a professional independence while accommodating the curricular and instructional expectations of the school and school system.

Prior to the introduction of induction it was evident that traditional in-service within each country had not assisted beginning teachers to effectively enhance their instructional skills, curricular knowledge, professional socialization or self-directed learning capacity. Hence, an underlying objective for introducing induction programmes was to initiate new professional development activities with beginning teachers that would attend to these elements of teacher preparation. The following discussion reviews the implications of how induction programmes may curtail or enhance one of these important elements - self-directed learning - into the induction process. The first issue is the programmatic implications of the assessment and supervisory procedures used within the induction model.



### Assessment and Supervision

Two important components of induction programmes are the procedures of teacher assessment and the instructional strategies of supervision. Both components are prevalent in the induction models and both components have implications for implementing successful induction programmes.

For example, upon examination of the assessment and supervisory procedures within the induction programmes three consistencies are evident. First, all induction programmes require beginning teachers to enter their induction year with a pre-service teaching diploma or certificate. This procedure ensures that beginning teachers have been initially assessed on the basis of their academic, professional and practical components within their university or college pre-service programme. Hence, induction assessment procedures may be built upon the knowledge that various pre-service goals and objectives in the areas of instruction, curriculum, educational foundations, professional practice have been successfully met by the beginning teachers. Second, all induction programmes provide a formal certification procedure at the end of the probationary year. Hence successful completion of the various programme requirements terminates the probationary status of the beginning teacher. Third, all induction programmes provide some form of supervisory support or counsel for the beginning teachers, this support being provided by at least a mentor and a principal or induction consultant. However, the consistencies of the assessment and supervisory procedures of each induction programme end at this point.

As the research evidence suggests, specific supervisory and evaluative strategies do vary among induction models. In

Britain and Australia teacher assessment is formalized around a summative reporting procedure that takes place near the end of the induction year. The principal or the district induction advisor prepares a final report that summarises the teaching abilities and overall progress of the probationary teacher. Consultation with mentors and other supervisory personnel is pursued by the report writer but essentially the assessment is undertaken in relative isolation to the ongoing induction activities that the beginning teacher has experienced during the probationary year. In contrast, in the U.S., New Zealand and Canada assessment procedures are the responsibility of the members of the beginning teacher's supervisory personnel. Regular formative supervisory sessions provide consistent data that is formulated during the post conference meeting. Final assessment reporting, therefore, is actually a composite ongoing formative documentation that has been contributed by all supervisory personnel. Analysis of the U.S. and New Zealand programmes reveals that self-evaluative procedures are open to the beginning teachers to contribute personal assessment on their own instructional progress. However, concrete evidence of systematically using the teacher's self-evaluative data was not forthcoming in the research investigation.

Nevertheless, regardless of the circumstances of the assessment procedure, each induction programme did promote the use of supervisory strategies among the mentors and supervisory personnel. However, two factors do appear problematic among the induction programmes' supervisory activities. First, the quality and quantity of in-service programming for supervisory personnel is directly proportional to the funding that



is available to establish such programmes. Comprehensive programmes are costly. Furthermore, given the complexities of the supervisor's role, i.e., gathering data, communicating information, and preparing formative documentation, the need to provide comprehensive in-service programming is definitely required. Unfortunately, few examples exist where comprehensive funding for the training of supervisors is undertaken. Northumberland, Avon and New Zealand do use appropriate funding to promote this endeavour but generally induction budgets do not extend sufficiently to cover the in-service requirements. Second, beginning teachers have minimal choice about the kind of supervision they receive. Clinical supervision is the preferred format of all countries where a consistent model exists, i.e., Canada, U.S. However, this process is primarily designed to focus upon instructional skills, i.e. lesson planning, questioning techniques and pupil assessment techniques rather than the categories of the affective domain, curriculum development or professional socialization. Current practices of supervision such as cooperative, developmental, and self-directed supervision all could be considered as possible alternatives.

In Australia and Britain this assessment/supervisory issue is further complicated because assessment criteria have not been clearly articulated. Hence, evaluative judgements by principals or induction supervisory personnel become more subjective and personally interpretative. This fact alone is not contentious. However, given that these individuals do not observe or confer with the beginning teachers on a regular basis, the assessment process does not appear to enhance the professional development of the beginning teachers nor truly



validate an effective assessment procedure.

The underlying assumption of this discussion is that licensing of beginning teachers is an undeniable component of induction programmes. However, the formal evaluation process must be incorporated into supervisory procedures that enhance the professional development of the beginning teacher. In essence the supervision of probationary teachers, the orientation of supervisors to differentiated supervisory practices and the development of supervisory materials and data gathering instruments become a crucial task for induction programmers. It becomes essential that the mentor can assist the beginning teacher to analyse and interpret the instructional and curricular experiences without imposing their own values or educational bias. Ideally the mentor or other supervisory personnel should attempt to work within the situational framework of the beginning teacher's abilities, knowledge and classroom environment. The development of a trusting or safe relationship between the mentor and the beginning teacher encourages the beginning teacher to learn their own limitations as well as feel open to call upon the supervisor's assistance when challenges may be beyond their own initial capacity. To develop a supervisory context for this to occur, teacher assessment must become an inherent and unobtrusive factor. Professional development among teachers will therefore occur more effectively if teacher assessment is regarded as inevitable component of professionalism, rather than an extraneous or extraordinary judicial event.

### Self-evaluation

An important assumption about teachers is that they generally exhibit instructional competence or creativity without necessarily being knowledgeable about describing or assessing why and how they teach. For beginning teachers this becomes problematic when mentors ask them to articulate or diagnose the curriculum strategies and instructional skills that they use. Consequently beginning teachers find it difficult to translate their induction experiences into an ongoing professional development plan. They look to their experienced colleagues for assistance. Hence this situation requires supervisory personnel to provide strategies or to model examples of self-directed learning that the beginning teacher may adopt.

As mentioned earlier, the self-directed professional development opportunities provided by the various induction models are not very precise, i.e., Florida, New Zealand, Australia, and nor very evident, i.e., Britain, Canada. However, if the establishment and promotion of induction programmes are to become an underlying principle of induction, then self-directed professional development activities must be afforded beginning teachers. Florida's beginning teacher portfolio format is the best example of how a self-directing activity may be organised. The professional portfolio provides a central reference for all unit planning, supervisory notes, evaluative forms, self-evaluation records or other information that would descriptively document the progress of the beginning teacher. The overall intention of this procedure could be most helpful. However, the portfolio must become more than just a filing system or record keeping document which the

Florida programme has unfortunately become (Jensen, 1983).

It appears, therefore, that greater opportunities for promoting continuous professional development must be incorporated into the induction practices for beginning teachers. One method of achieving this would be the adoption of self-evaluation strategies. The following brief outline identifies how this might occur.

First a set of curriculum objectives should be incorporated into the curricular organising principle of teacher development. At present only Australia and New Zealand allude to the self-evaluative instructional process in the curricular organising principles. However, neither country has induction models that translate those principles into curricular objectives. Objectives that might be included are:

- i) demonstrating self-evaluation skills, including reflection, critical analysis and ability to modify performance;

- ii) examining critically pedagogical theory, personal beliefs about education, and how they interrelate with classroom performance;

- iii) identifying instructional priorities or curricular activities, based on self-assessment, that would comprise the next phase of professional development.

Second, a clearly defined set of optional activities to complement these self-evaluation objectives should be outlined in the induction handbooks. Given that both beginning teachers and supervisory personnel in all programmes use this handbook as their instructional reference, the opportunity to promote such activities would be easily facilitated. Hence related



activities beginning teachers might pursue include:

i) analysing self as teacher and choosing areas of improvement and areas of enrichment;

ii) selecting means to monitor growth such as: a journal, comments on lesson plans, video/audio tapes, discussions with pupils or supervisors;

iii) using feedback from all sources in evaluating own performance and in preparing for subsequent planning;

iv) reflecting and reassessing one's own performance on an ongoing basis.

The Australian and U.S. induction models have emphasised that induction practices should be incorporated into staff development programmes. Hence, the self-evaluation activities listed above could easily be incorporated into all staff development activities for both beginning and experienced teachers.

Third, a summative self-evaluation interview between the beginning teacher and the individual(s) who is responsible for completing the final evaluation document could take place as a complement to the final reporting procedure. Not only would this interview process provide the beginning teacher with the opportunity to provide a summative overview of self-evaluative documents acquired over the induction year, but also the interview would moderate the reliance of the final assessment being solely based on the perceptions or recorded documentation of the probationer's evaluator. This self-evaluation process could i) encompass an analysis of the learning outcome demonstrated by the pupils' progress in the beginning teacher's classes; ii) provide an overview of the contextual and situational perspectives that were discussed during the course of the year with the pupils, mentor and other super-

visory personnel; iii) identify how the professional socialization experiences and the instructional and curricular activities were undertaken and analysed; and iv) provide a critically reflective summation that would seek to uncover and clarify the assumptions of the beginning teacher's purpose in presenting the curriculum and instructional programme throughout the induction year.

In review, developmental supervisory and self-evaluative practices will greatly enhance the assessment process within the induction programme. Opportunities for all programme models to incorporate these practices becomes a major challenge for the various local induction committees. The implementation of a confluent professional development programme requires the adaption of these strategies so as to involve both the beginning teachers and the mentors. Hence engaging and reflective practitioners are required if induction programme endeavours are to succeed.

### Summary

This chapter provided a comprehensive analysis of the two major questions that framed the research undertaken in the study. The first question concerning the confluence of teacher education was addressed by examining the data reflective of four sub-topics: academic content, curricular objectives, assessment and certification and self-development. The positive consequences of developing particular programmatic orientations as it may affect the implementation of induction was outlined within each of these topics.

The second question concerning how professional development opportunities within induction may promote self-directed

learning was also addressed. The two sub-topics selected to examine the data were assessment and supervision and self-evaluation. The positive consequences of applying these procedures within an induction programme were also outlined. The direct implications of the procedures upon the activity of the beginning teacher and the supervisory personnel were also indicated. In essence this chapter has provided an overview of the potentialities of good inductive practice recognizing that

"teacher education is a form of adult development, a process of coming rather than merely a process of educating someone how to teach."

(Zeichner, 1983b, p. 4)



## Introduction to Section 6

### APPRAISAL OF STUDY

These conclusions end one investigation and carry us on to the more knowledgeable beginning of another investigation.

Having provided an analysis of the case study data in the previous section, the following two chapters provide a retrospective appraisal of the culminating dimensions of the thesis. First, chapter 14 provides a summary of the implications of the study. A discussion of the academic, governance and analytical implications that have been derived from the research will be included. Within the discussion of the academic implications a proposed analytical model that profiles five different induction paradigms will be introduced. These five paradigms provide an overview of the programme components, designs, and issues of induction that have been analysed in the thesis.

Chapter 15 provides a final synopsis of issues, recommendations, and conclusions. Thirteen recommendations are presented, complemented by a brief summary of each representative issue. A final summative overview of the study's conclusions will then complete the chapter and the thesis.

## Chapter 14

## IMPLICATIONS OF STUDY

This comparative study of induction programmes in five different countries has generated a predominance of documentation that is transfixed in the dimensions of time, geographical region and cultural relativism. In essence the academic orientations, programme practices and institutional limitations of the induction models have been examined in the framework of their national and historical setting. Nevertheless, using an etic approach - viewing from the outside looking in - comparative documentation has been collected, assimilated, and analysed generating a variety of important implications on the academic, governance and organisational components of induction. This chapter provides a summative overview of these implications.

As mentioned earlier, the truth of this investigation cannot be defined as an absolute. It is subjected to values, interpretation and situational sense-making. However, by adopting a verification-oriented process through the Conrad, Berman and Cushman analytical paradigms, heuristic and predictive functions may be incorporated into the framework of this induction study.

Academic Implications Upon Induction

Based on the analysis of data from this thesis one fact does appear definite, the introduction of an induction programme does alter the academic context of teacher education. Whether explicitly stated in the policy or implicitly designed within the organisational format of induction activities, the

underlying pedagogical structure of teacher education is affected. As identified in the previous section the various induction programmes do have a different underlying rationale or at the very least a differing curricular organisational principle that affects the curricular emphases and structure. The major effects of this curricular difference specifically impact upon the induction practices of the beginning teacher. Hence, in addressing a major purpose of this thesis a conceptual pedagogical framework for classifying induction programmes has been constructed.

Hopefully the construction of this analytical framework will provide a research strategy that may be used when investigating both induction programmes and the confluence of teacher education. Furthermore, this analytical framework will help illuminate various pedagogical and structural issues programme developers and policy makers must consider when introducing an induction programme. Having relied upon an organisational process for analysing induction within this study, outlined in chapter 6, it is now possible to use Deutsch's (1978) other proposed analytical processes, the heuristic and the predictive, to develop a theoretical base for identifying the paradigm orientation of induction programmes. However, before providing specific examples, it is important to provide an overall theoretical framework of teacher education that encompasses induction if confluence is to be realized.

#### Confluence of Teacher Education

Rubin (1978) concluded his treatise on teacher education by stating that educators should always develop theories when



defining professional growth or postulating the validation of teacher education models. Therefore in proposing a theoretical framework for induction and its role within the confluence of teacher education the structural paradigm of the three act play in literature has been selected. This literary model offers a more humanistic orientation rather than the scientific, technological or business management paradigms that are more prevalently used in education today. As described earlier a common belief is that the three components of teacher education: pre-service, induction and in-service should be interrelated if the benefit of ongoing professional development of teachers is to be realized. Hence successful development of this confluent relationship within teacher education can be compared to the organised format of a well written three act play. In essence, the conceptual and organisational framework of the three acts may be metaphorically compared to the three integrated phases of teacher education. For example, in a three act play the playwright aims to interconnect and sequentially follow a coherent pattern within the evolution of the three acts of the drama. As discussed previously, the essence of confluence must incorporate an interconnectiveness and coherent sequence among the three phases of teacher education. Also, the merit of a good drama is realized when the scenario of each act provides an encompassing and integrated set of actions that have independent value within the overall drama. This is again analogous to teacher education given that the inherent quality of pre-service, induction and in-service programmes is that each must have an individual set of academic, governance and organisational components

while remaining interrelated to the other two phases of teacher education.

Another metaphoric comparison between the confluence of teacher education and the drama is that both have a central theme or moral. The manifestation of a theme within a three act play utilises the sequential unfolding of the plot to heighten the intensity of the dramatic theme. In teacher education, or more specifically in the professional development of teachers, a central theme also should be clearly defined. For example, it appears essential that quality programming pre-preservice, induction and in-service programming are portrayed as an interconnecting academic and professional continuum that incrementally manifests a unifying curricular organising principle or theme. Moreover, each phase of this continuum requires organisational and governance components as well as a curricular emphases and structure that will ensure a unique academic integrity. For a teacher progressing through this continuum a set of entry, demonstrative, and summative tasks would characterize a particular professional experience at each phase.

Hence the issue to address is what should this theme encompass. Upon examination of the British, Australian, New Zealand, U.S. and Canadian induction programmes it was evident that not only were the governance, organisation and implementation of the three phases of teacher education generally not interconnected but also there was no unifying curricular organising theme. An exception could be made for Florida State's programme because teacher education does attempt to connect all three phases with their mandatory professional development competency programme. However, unlike a good drama Florida's



three act drama has a very prescribed and predictable plot, given its competency-based framework and its narrow cognitive domain focus. Most importantly, the main character, the teacher, does not have the opportunity to fully develop a more holistic approach to their professional development.

### Pre-service

Reflecting upon the analogy of the drama, pre-service education is definitely act one of the drama. Hence any attempts to develop a unifying theme must begin at the university or college. However, pre-service teacher education programmes that lead to teacher certification are usually the more predictable and uniform among programme options within the three stages of teacher education. In general the pre-service governance and academic principles provide a certain homogeneity that pervades the pre-service phase of teacher education. For example, admission requirements including pre-requisites and grade point average initiate this phase of the professional continuum. In addition, a framework of a curricular organisational principle becomes the central core of each pre-service programme. Essentially this curriculum framework comprises, as well as promotes, the programmatic individuality of each pre-service teacher education programme. Organising principles as posited by Conrad may reflect a priority of academic disciplines, student development, great books and ideas, social problems or selected competencies that will affect undoubtedly the particular pre-service programme. Furthermore, a curricular emphasis that incorporates a unique locus of learning, a specialized curriculum content and a flexible programme design will nurture an important indivi-



duality among the various programmes.

For the student teacher, the drama's main actor, this initial phase develops his character, while also orienting him to a socialization process of schooling through the practicum field experiences. This experience will then be celebrated by the teacher at the closure of the first act through a graduation ceremony at a teachers college or university. However, as in any good play, the first act ends by setting up the plot for the second act. Questions such as will the teacher, our main character, acquire a teaching position, will the job situation reflect the specific academic preparation that the teacher experiences in pre-service; will there be the professional supervising support for the first year of teaching as there was during pre-service, and finally, what evaluative criteria will now be used to determine the progress or success of the teacher? Finally, what options will the second stage of teacher education, the induction phase, actually provide for the beginning teacher.

#### Five Paradigms of Induction

As discussed throughout the thesis, induction, internship, the probationary year of teaching all refer to the second developmental phase of a professional teacher's career. As in a three act drama this component of teacher education becomes a major divarication of action within the total drama. For example within this second phase of teacher education various factors, as evidenced by this document's research, indicate that the academic expectations, professional support and working environments of beginning teachers vary considerably among countries, among states, among school districts,

and among schools. Not only does the academic governance and organisational components differ, but also the overall priority induction receives within the staff development programme of the school greatly determines the sophistication of the programme. Therefore, based on this research of induction programmes, five paradigms of induction programmes are proposed to represent different interpretations of this second phase of teacher education. Within the metaphorical framework different scenarios of the second act of the play are profiled. Figure 20 provides a graphic summary of these paradigms.

Figure 20

Five Induction Paradigms

Induction Paradigms	General Characteristics
#1 Laissez Faire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- absence of formal programming</li> <li>- minimal mentor-protege relationship</li> <li>- not a high priority for beginning teacher or staff development programming</li> </ul>
#2 Collegial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- informal supervisory relationship with experienced colleague</li> <li>- in-service activities are provided for both participants</li> <li>- no assessment component enters into this supervisory relationship</li> </ul>
#3 Formalized Mentor Protege	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- formalized contractual relationship of beginning teacher with experienced teacher with mandated syllabus</li> <li>- comprehensive in-service activities for both participants</li> <li>- beginning teacher evolves through a continua from dependency on the mentor to professional independence</li> <li>- an assessment component is part of the mentor's role</li> </ul>
#4 Mandatory Competency Based	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- mandated performance-based competency programme</li> <li>- probationary status of beginning teacher emphasized</li> <li>- major financial and legislative support afforded</li> <li>- well monitored and evaluated</li> </ul>
#5 Self- Directing Profes- sional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- self-directing contract format</li> <li>- may combine elements of paradigms #2, 3, 4</li> <li>- mentor provides collaborative support</li> <li>- beginning of ongoing professional development plan</li> </ul>

### Paradigm #1 - Laissez-faire

The most prevalent example of induction programmes, particularly in most of Canada and Britain as well as in several U.S. states is the laissez-faire paradigm. In this paradigm beginning teachers are given full responsibilities of a classroom but receive no coordinated supervisory, consultative or peer support. Occasionally a mentor-protege relationship may develop informally within the school, for example the beginning teacher may discuss problems with an experienced teacher or school principal, but this is usually the exception rather than the rule. Professional development opportunities may be afforded through school district or school-based in-service. However, no special programmes are usually offered that reflect the unique needs of the beginning teacher. Various factors create this professional vacuum for beginning teachers. First, if teachers graduate from pre-service institutions and receive full certification requiring no ongoing probationary period, then beginning teachers do not have any assessment or tenure review policy that would require mandatory supervisory or evaluative procedures. Second, first-year teachers become so preoccupied with survival, i.e., tomorrow's lesson planning, daily marking and the regular management and administrative activities of the classroom that little additional time is initiated on their part to pursue assistance or counsel unless time or support is offered directly to them. Third, peer supervision, team teaching, and staff development programmes that might promote options for beginning teachers are not a common occurrence among many schools. Hence all three factors seem to naturally avoid induction programme practice



and leave the introductory phase of full-time teaching as an exploratory, phenomenological and survivalist experience for the beginning teacher.

Finally, the laissez-faire paradigm can often be the result of scapegoating. This occurs when universities, school districts, teacher associations all recognize the importance of providing some supportive induction programme for beginning teachers but dwindling professional development budgets, scarcity of new jobs, priorities of retraining teachers, and no professional leadership for promoting induction provide strong arguments against its implementation.

#### Paradigm #2 - Collegial

The second scenario or paradigm is the collegial model. Beginning teachers within this model as in Britain and Australia are assigned an experienced teacher for their first professional year. The experienced teacher who would have familiarity with the grade or subject level of the beginning teacher would volunteer for this position and would not receive remuneration. A supervisory in-service programme would have been developed within the district for the experienced teacher so as to ensure that opportunities for improving their supervisory and communicative skills would occur. In addition special in-service sessions involving both beginning and experienced teachers would take place throughout the year. Hence, not only does each member of this collegial team receive professional training but also beginning and experienced teachers become participants in an educational partnership within their school.

This type of programme does not require much cost because

most in-service sessions would be held during after-school hours. However, some districts appreciating the professional development advantages to both beginning teacher and mentor could establish budgets for substitute costs and day-long in-service meetings that would enhance the priority the district would place on this form of induction programming.

Curriculum assistance and instructional supervision would form the basis of the experienced teacher's support. No standards or requirements would be placed on the beginning teacher achieving a presubscribed competency level, rather the assistance of the experienced teacher would be an informal arbitration based on the beginning teacher's requests and the experienced teacher's observations.

Finally, the collegial model is not an assessment-based model. Although the principal's reports would comprise the first year teacher's evaluation, the experienced teacher would have no role to play in this evaluative process. The underlying assumption of this induction paradigm being that the collegial relationship of the beginning teacher with an experienced peer in the same school emphasizes the supportive, personalized, school-based and non-evaluative form of induction practice. Recognition of the important assistance that may be afforded the beginning teacher, regarding such areas as instruction and curriculum, complements the invaluable socialization activities that are also inherent in this model.

### Paradigm #3 - Formalized Mentor-Protege

Unlike the collegial paradigm this induction model has a formalized contractual relationship between the experienced and beginning teacher. Not only are supervisor visitations a

regular occurrence but also interviews, tutorials and in-service sessions comprise the induction activity of both teachers. Although the mentor-protege relationship may be described as a helping relationship, the mentor does assume a formalized evaluative role.

At the beginning of the school year the mentor becomes fully responsible for various instructional and socialization activities that would enable the beginning teacher to gain competence, confidence, realistic values, self-evaluative skills, curricular knowledge and a general understanding of the pupils, staff and school ethos. As Gray and Gray (1984) suggest, interaction between the mentor and the beginning teacher would comprise modelling, supervision, coaching, discussion, and curriculum collaboration. Moreover during the course of the school year the mentor reduces his responsibilities and offers minimal leadership. Meanwhile the beginning teachers become more self-directing, self-evaluating, and eventually become responsible for the development of their own professional development programme. As a role model, instructor, supervisor and counsellor, the mentor not only provides invaluable assistance for the beginning teacher, but also this multitude of instructional responsibilities enhances the mentor's own professional development.

Formalized record keeping, formative and summative evaluative data as well as instructional assessment by the principal would characterize this model. Released time becomes a required feature of this programme, because beginning and experienced teachers need specified times to meet, hold tutorials and attend in-service sessions. School districts or state governments would finance this release time and recog-



nize the value of this induction practice by ensuring that adequate substitute funds would be available to cover the release time of mentor and beginning teacher. In some school settings the mentor may have more than one protege but the preferred approach is that one experienced teacher supervises one beginning teacher. Finally, the mentor would have a mandated induction syllabus to base observations and instructional support. However, the instructional emphasis and curriculum orientation would complement the situational framework of the beginning teacher's perspective while meeting needs of the pupils and reflecting the instructional progress of the teacher.

#### Paradigm #4 - Mandated Competency-Based

The fourth induction paradigm for beginning teachers is a formal and required involvement in a post university induction certification programme. This paradigm is a mandatory internship or probationary model. Within this model beginning teachers leave the regulatory defined pre-service programme to embark upon a complementary formalized induction programme. As in medicine, beginning teachers or interns are required to meet certification requirements or to perform competency-based objectives within their first year of teaching prior to obtaining their full professional standing. U.S. programmes described in this thesis exemplify such programmes. Evaluative procedures characterize this model and may be interrelated or totally separate from formative supervisory practices of school-based personnel. Usually district or provincial administrative personnel are responsible for the beginning teacher's assessment.

Legislative support underlines this type of induction model hence policy regulations and substantial funding prevail. Normally beginning teachers would have a minimal self-evaluative role in this programme given that the mandated syllabus would have its own assessment procedures and skill-based testing. In essence the induction curriculum is a commodity that is to be consumed with little opportunity for individual interpretation allowed. However, skillful beginning teachers would be given the opportunity to proceed through the competencies and master them at their own rate. Hence, the mentor and principal would act as both supervisors and programme technicians since the responsibility of implementing and monitoring the induction programme rests with them.

Finally, the mandated competency-based programme is characterized by substantial programme evaluation. Given the investment, both politically and financially, the politicians and district administrators wish to ensure that accountability and productivity are evidenced throughout the induction programme. Therefore programme evaluation, beginning teacher assessment, progress reports, statistical documentation and in, some cases, state-wide research programming will be introduced.

#### Paradigm #5 - Self-Directing Professional

The fifth paradigm is the self-directing professional model. In essence the beginning teacher may experience modifications of any of the other last three scenarios but most importantly first year professional in-service activities are seen as the beginning of an ongoing continuing education programme for the first year teacher. A professional develop-

ment plan is prepared by the first year teacher which constitutes a major component of his professional profile. This self-directing contract formatively evolves each year of the teacher's professional career and is monitored by the teacher's principal or an experienced colleague. In-service workshops assist the beginning teacher with the preparation of a self-directed professional profile ensuring that self-analytical and self-evaluative strategies are effectively implemented. The beginning teacher may utilize the experience and supervisory support of other first year teachers, experienced teachers, principals or instructional and curriculum consultants. However, in this induction paradigm the contractual expectations and subsequent completion of a professional development profile remain as the responsibility of the beginning teacher.

The interpretation of the mentor's role in this paradigm is that the experienced teacher works with the beginning teacher in reflecting critically upon the relationship of the beginning teacher's actions and the beginning teacher's self-evaluation. The assumptions of both mentor and beginning teacher become a collaborative and ongoing transformation of their knowledge, their process of instruction and their professional relationship. Naturally the mentoring emphasis in this type of induction programme as it applies to curriculum development and implementation would contribute towards educational preparation rather than mere training.

Certainly the enactment of one of these five scenarios in the induction year following the completion of a pre-service programme definitely will influence the evolutionary growth of



the beginning teacher. Each paradigm portrays the induction process in a different ethos. Consequences to the development of dramatic portrayal of the beginning teacher's professional opportunities and experience are naturally individualistic. Irrespective of the decision or opportunity of the beginning teacher to undertake one scenario over another the second year of professional teaching will lead to the third stage of teacher education or the third act of the drama. Hence the second act concludes with these questions. Will the first year teacher enter their second year in the profession with enlightenment and professional inspiration? Will the second year of teacher's professional career sequentially evolve from the beginning teacher's induction experiences? And finally, have the professional development and socialization experiences of induction provided a meaningful base from which to foster and promote rather than to fragment and incapacitate the professional learning of the beginning teacher?

### In-Service

The large quantity of literature and research indicate that the third act of the teacher education model is a most adverse and sometimes perverse experience for professional teachers. Some in-service programmes have never included more than a passive attendance by disenfranchised teachers whereas at the other extreme in-service programmes are mechanized to complement a very regulated renewable certification process. Howey (1985) has proposed that the pursuit of professional change by experienced teachers is crucial if teachers are to apply meaningful significance to their teaching. Whether this professional change encompasses self-discovery and under-

standing, continuing conceptual or pedagogical development or simply an enhancement of knowledge of their craft, the positive benefits will accrue for the teacher. Nevertheless it is the interrelationship of the three acts of this drama and in particular the harmony of sequential development of each of these acts that will ensure these positive benefits. A happy ending to the third act of this drama is the knowledge that teachers are as energetic and professionally investigative after many years of teaching as they were in their first years..Of course the other complementary happy ending is that the pupils of these teacher's classrooms are enjoying school and learning to their individual capacity. Unknown to these pupils is that they may be vulnerable recipients of a poorly produced play and a very weak cast of main and supporting actors.

### Conclusions

Irrespective of the underlying curricular theme of confluence and regardless of the prevailing paradigm of induction, successful induction programmes will only be successfully realized if the beginning teacher is fully incorporated and an enthusiastic participant in their own professional development. For the beginning teacher his analytical abilities, interpersonal style, philosophical openness and self-evaluative skills must all be encouraged to creatively mature. Meanwhile the change agents of the induction programme process must accommodate the beginning teacher's professional growth if the induction programme is to have long-term benefits to the teacher. Certainly educational reform will be enhanced if teacher preparation is producing a more analytical engaging



and reflective practitioner. Not only will the pupils in the classroom benefit but the educational change process in general will benefit from the participation of these self-evaluative, self-directing beginning teachers.

### Governance Implications Upon Induction

This study has identified that the governance factors of policy, funding and assessment/certification have a major influence upon the academic and organisational components of induction. For example, the New Zealand induction programme gained an important profile within the educational system once legislative policy was passed authorizing a reduced teaching load for both mentors and probationary teachers. In Britain the loss of national government funding for induction almost totally eliminated the activities of the L.E.A.'s in providing academic and professional programmes for the beginning teachers. Finally, the governance implications of the assessment/certification procedures in Florida indicated the immense influence an assessment model has upon the academic orientation, the organisational and administrative expectations of supervisory personnel, and the overall cost of implementing the programme. However, despite the general implications of legislative policy, both funding and assessment/certification varied greatly within each induction model. Nevertheless it is important to extrapolate fundamental perspectives or comparative issues that will further illuminate the governance factors that emanate from the introduction of induction programmes. First an examination of the extant conditions of governance and its interrelationship with political factors as a prerequisite to implementation of induction is presented.



Second, a discussion of the jurisdictional process of governance relative to establishing and maintaining induction is provided.

### Governance and Political Factors

Unquestionably all five countries' induction programmes had common extant conditions pertaining to governance and political support prior to the programmes' implementation. Politically the national or state education authorities recognized that school reform would also require reform in teacher education. Induction programmes were seen as an ideal focus for teacher education innovation hence legislative policy reforms were introduced. All educational authorities mobilized the various stakeholders in teacher education so as to provide political support and collaborative endorsement within the educational community. New Zealand for example gained legislative reform by using research and evaluative data to argue for increased induction programming. Canada's A.T.I.P. also sought political endorsement from the various stakeholders, but their initiation phase of programme organisation was brief and relied upon documentation on induction from the other four countries.

Overall one governance factor remains fundamental to the establishment and institutionalization of induction - funding. It appears so evident that increased financial support by national and state governments towards induction is directly proportional to the organisational and administrative potential of the programmes. The quantitative and qualitative factors of the induction model may be greatly enhanced if financial resources become directed to this endeavour. In Canada,

for example, the A.T.I.P. has been developed primarily because funding has been allocated from both the Provincial Education and Employment Ministries. In Australia the programme variations prevalent in each state are very much based on the individual funding that is specifically allocated. In-service programming, release time for beginning teachers, induction staff availability all rely upon adequate funding. Hence one may conclude that political support is pragmatically evident if governance policies, endorsing the academic and organisational legislation, substantially receive financial appropriation.

### The Domain of Governance

The responsibility for the establishment and maintenance of induction programmes has been described as both an organisational and political process. However, an understanding of the domain of governance, its structure and its implications are crucial to induction if programme practice is to become effectively implemented. In this study it would appear that the governance domain for both establishing and maintaining induction programmes rests with the educational jurisdiction that provides the funding. Apart from New Zealand's induction programme which operates a national funding scheme all programmes in the four other countries rely upon the state, province or county for financial support. The jurisdictional governance of all induction models was based upon state legislative policies and regulations. Hence, the establishment and programme initiation of innovative reform in induction emanated from state level government.

The maintenance of induction programmes, however, becomes

a shared responsibility. At the first level funding and policy review continues to be the major responsibility. For example, the intention to continue the Alberta I.T.P. will be based on evaluation data gathered over a two-year period, as well as the overall political and professional support acquired from all stakeholders. Nevertheless, the final decision to continue the programme will be the provincial legislature and its resolution to provide the necessary funding. The second level is the locally based induction committee. This group is primarily responsible for the curriculum design of the programme content as it pertains to the unique district needs. These committees, that are comprised of all stakeholders at the local level, prepare detailed programme policies that will frame the academic, governance and organisational components of the induction programme. Mentor in-service agendas, assessment procedures for evaluating beginning teachers, and research and programme evaluation priorities are samples of the policies that this local governance committee would supervise. The D.E.S. schemes and New Zealand induction models are good examples of how the local induction committees would operate. The third level is the school district administrative level. The governance domain of this group is normally represented by district officials who have full or partial responsibility for the management and operation of the induction programme. Based on state legislative guidelines and programme implementation policies of the locally based induction committee this group assumes the important role of school-based implementation. Mentors, principals and beginning teachers can rely upon this level of programme governance to respond to their concerns and needs. As evidenced in Florida



the more detailed and assessment-based the induction model becomes the greater the need for full-time personnel at this governance level.

In summary, this study has shown that a major prerequisite for implementing induction is that the governance factors must be in place. Each induction programme is characterized by the priority and programmatic dimensions that the legislative policy, funding and political initiatives receive. Hence the institutionalization of induction appears to rely upon the political support and legislative action that is directly afforded this stage of teacher education by all stakeholders: teachers, administrators, officials, the politicians and ultimately the public.

#### The Descriptive and Analytical Implications Upon Induction

The overall descriptive and analytical framework used in this thesis has been described in detail in the methodology section, chapter 6. As evidenced in both the presentation and analysis of data, the application of Conrad's academic paradigm, Berman's organisational implementation framework, and Cushman's governance factors systematized the analysis of the multitude of information that was assimilated from the induction models. However, within the context of each theoretical framework a surfeit of detail appeared to require further categorization of the academic, governance and organisational components. Hence as one implication of this study it appears necessary to provide a more detailed descriptive framework that would be used as both a research or programme design tool to investigate induction programmes.

### Academic Components

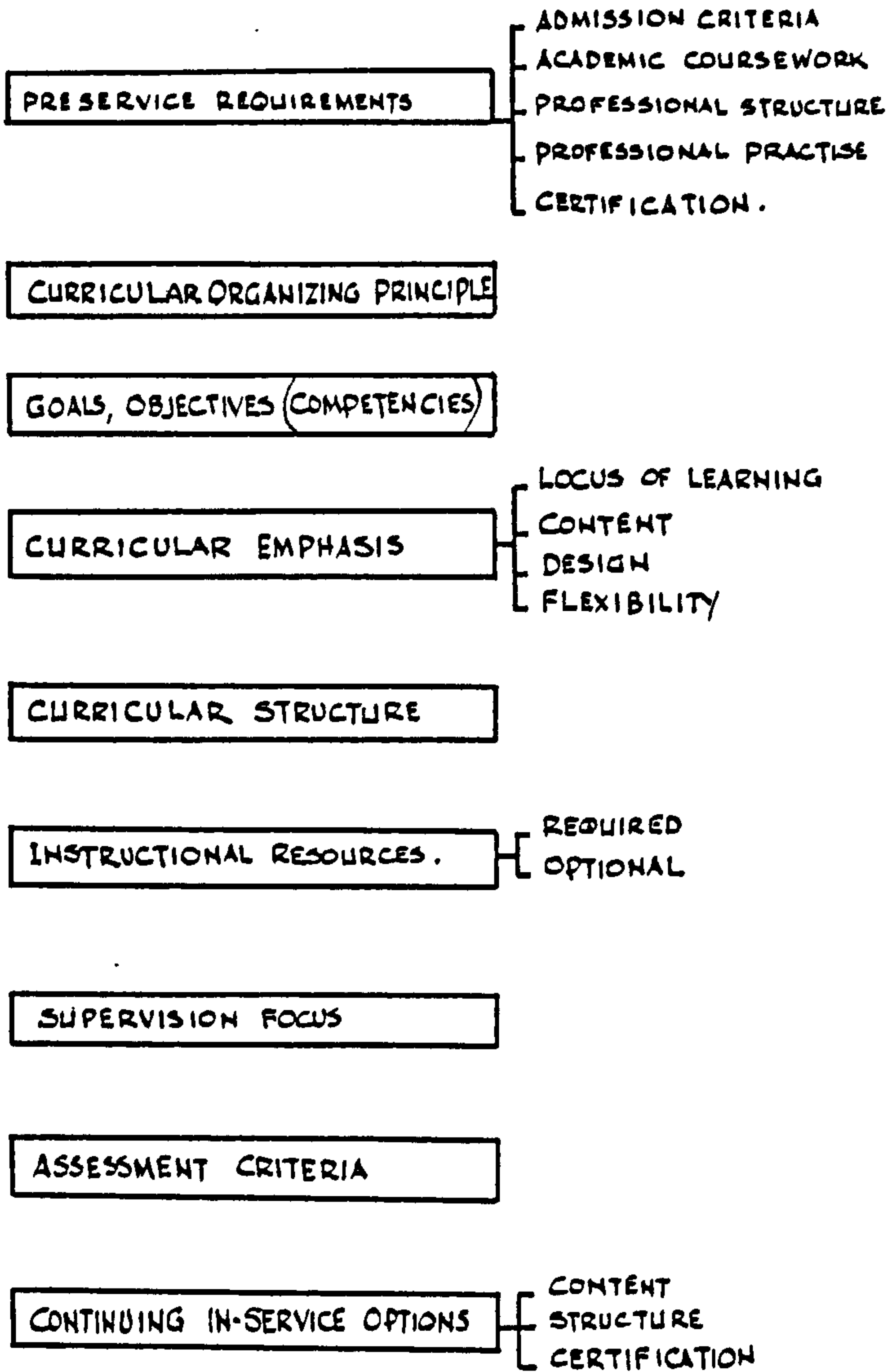
The three major academic categories of Conrad's model: curricular organising principle, curricular emphases and curricular structure provided a consistent baseline for comparative description and analysis within this thesis. Each category offered a particular focus that enabled the academic parameters of the induction programme to be informatively portrayed. Nevertheless, particular academic categories that also regularly surfaced, within the examination of the induction models could also be added to the academic descriptive framework (Figure 21, p. 313). For example, one major academic area that has important implications for the content and structural design of the induction programme are the pre-service programme requirements. Admission criteria, academic coursework, professional studies, professional practice and certification criteria comprise an important academic category that may greatly influence the model of induction practices. Detailed description of this category will provide a certain clarity of the potential confluent interrelationships that may exist between pre-service and induction as it applies to pedagogical sequencing, incremental certification criteria and theory/practice curriculum integration.

The supervisory factors of the induction programme also embrace an important academic dimension that must be considered as an inherent component of the analysis. For example, the supervisory models that are deployed, the focus for supervisory data collection, and the relationship between supervisory activities and assessment procedures are all important factors that should be incorporated into the academic analysis. Articulation between induction and continuing in-service

Figure 21

FRAMEWORK FOR DESCRIBING AND ANALYZING INDUCTION PROGRAMMES

ACADEMIC COMPONENTS.



options represents another academic category that would enhance the descriptive documentation of the induction programme. The curricular content, curricular structure and certification factors contained within the in-service programme should be described so as to correlate the confluent relationships that may be afforded the induction programme. For example, an in-service programme that is school-based and



focusses upon renewable certification activities could offer a retraining or enrichment curriculum that would extend the pedagogical orientation of the induction programme.

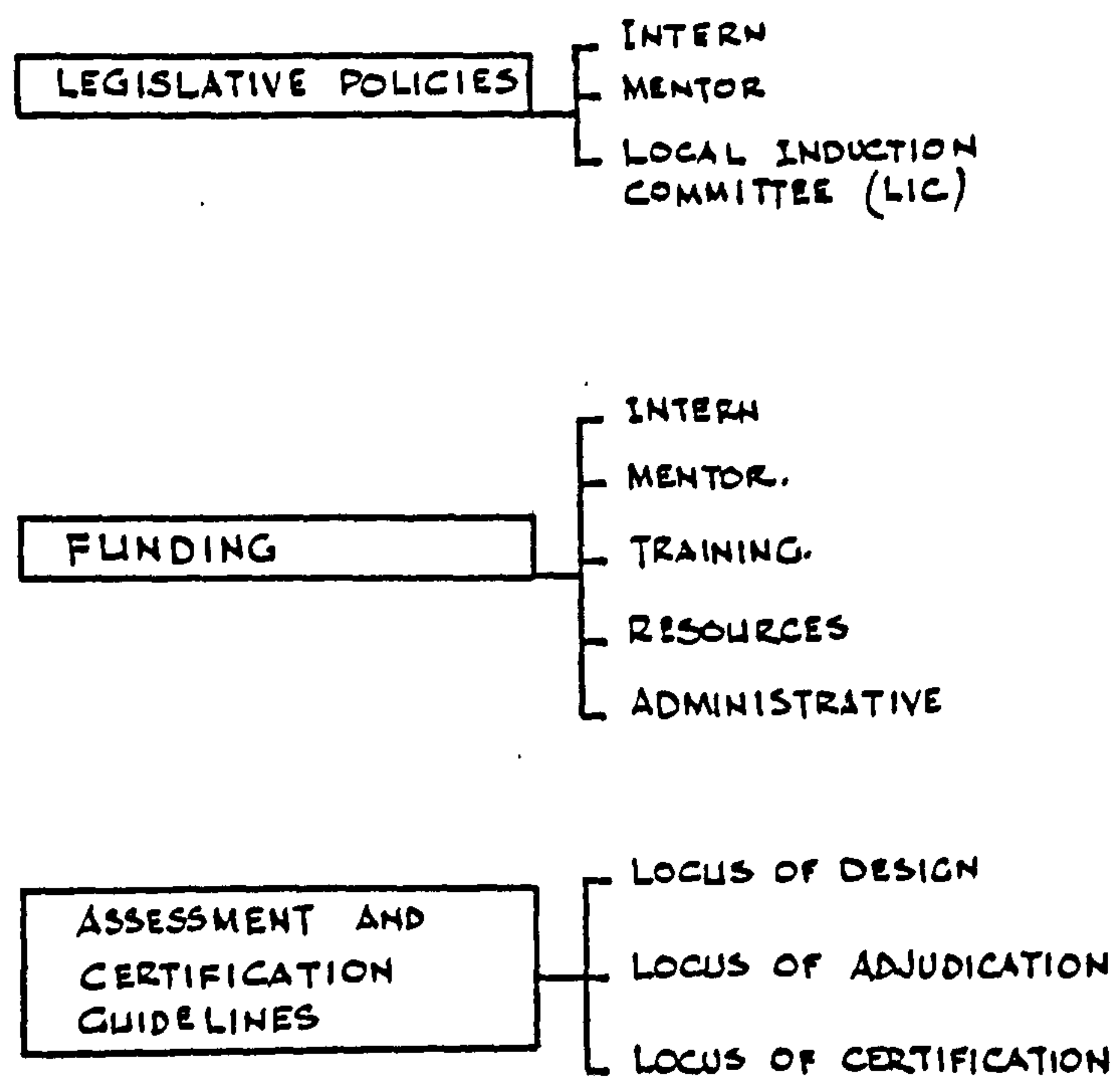
Governance Factors

As described earlier in relation to Cushman's governance framework, the influence of the governance factors upon the academic and organisational components of induction are most dominant. Legislative policies, funding appropriation and assessment and certification guidelines all determine the qualitative and quantitative indices of the induction model. Hence, as the research data unfolded it was evident that sub-factors of each governance theme could have received further recognition (Figure 22).

Figure 22

FRAMEWORK FOR DESCRIBING AND ANALYZING INDUCTION PROGRAMMES

GOVERNANCE FACTORS .



For example, legislative policies could be sub-divided into categories that apply to the legal status of the beginning teacher, the role and responsibilities of the mentor, and the governance structure of the local induction committee. Meanwhile sub-factors of the funding component might address the operational costs for the salaries of beginning teachers and mentors, the training programmes including substitute teacher costs, the instructional resources, and the overall administrative costs of the induction programmes. Finally, sub-factors applicable to the assessment and certification process also appear opportune for more detailed analysis. Hence, research investigation might consider the locus of design, adjudication, and certification as three important topics within the governance domain of induction.

### Organisational Components

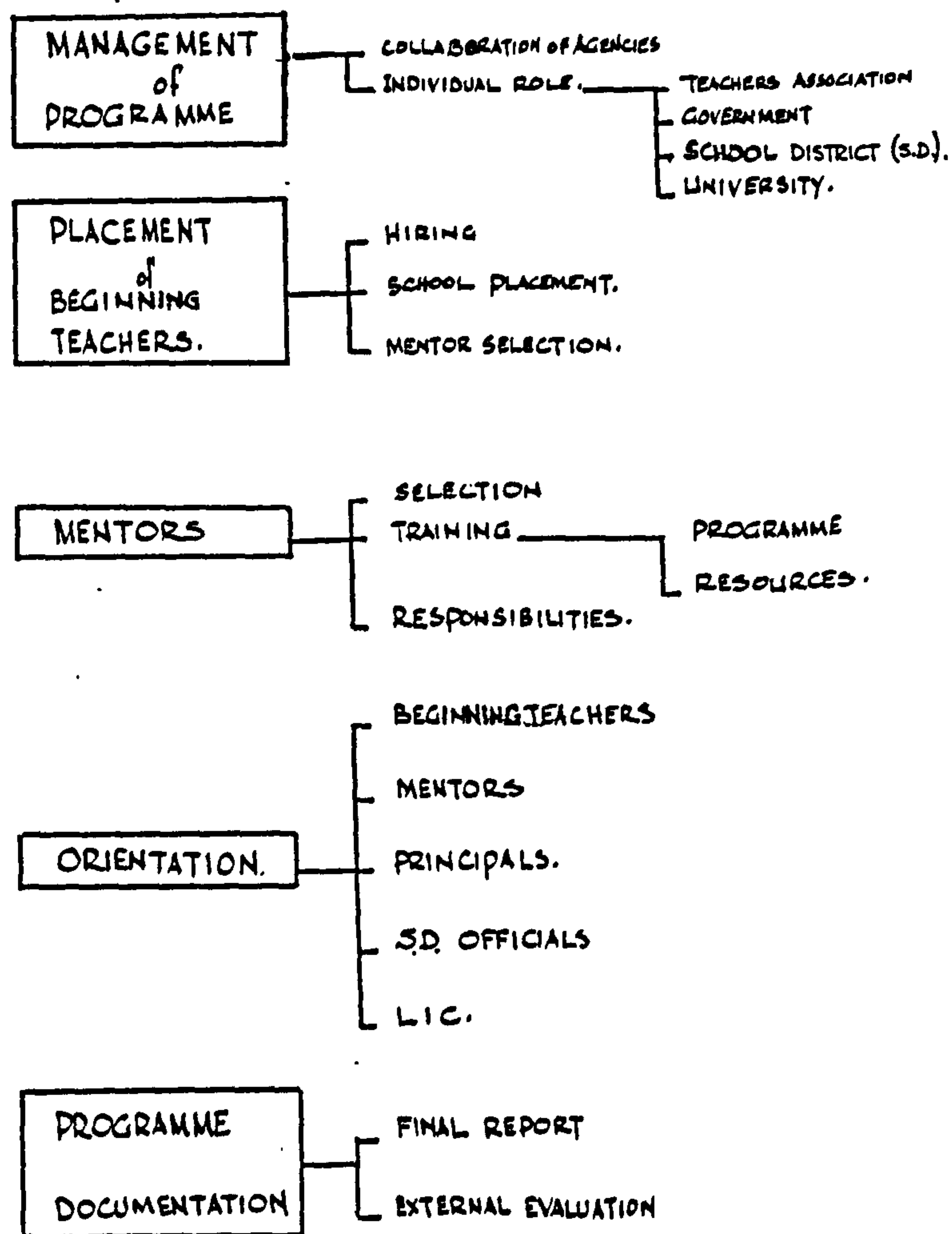
The educational change process as described by Berman's initiation, implementation and institutionalization paradigm did distinguish the unique stages of overall programme implementation that induction programming would encompass. Nevertheless, there were discerning features of the organisational framework that could be identified as inherent in each phase of the educational change process (Figure 23, p. 316). Hence a more detailed description of the organisational components might include:

a) the management of the programme. This would encompass the administrative role the stakeholding agencies such as the teachers' association, school district, individual school, universities and state government might assume both individually and collectively.

Figure 23

FRAMEWORK FOR DESCRIBING AND ANALYZING INDUCTION PROGRAMMES.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMPONENTS.  
(WITHIN INITIATION, IMPLEMENTATION AND INSTITUTIONALIZATION STAGES).



b) placements. This would describe the process that identifies the job search, screening, hiring, school placement and the identification of supervisory personnel.

c) mentors. Selection, training and responsibilities of mentors would provide another organisational dimension. Given the important role the mentor may assume within the instructional, curricular, professional and evaluative activities of the beginning teacher these sub-factors become an invaluable descriptive index of the induction programme.



d) orientation. Administrative and instructional orientation demands an important priority within the organisational procedures of induction. Beginning teachers, mentors, principals, school district officials and local induction committees all require orientation and ongoing communication on the demands and expectations placed on all personnel involved with the induction programme.

e) programme documentation. As summarised at the conclusion of each chapter in Section 4 the programme evaluation and research information became an invaluable descriptive factor within the overall induction outline of each induction model. Documents such as district reports, research projects, and external evaluations are important to include as organisational components because administering and promoting this documentation should become a regularized organisational procedure within the induction process.

In review, the descriptive details that have been articulated for all three induction components emphasize the complexity of analytical factors that must be considered when researching an induction programme. Certainly not all descriptive factors were highlighted in detail within every induction model of this study. However, the breadth of possibilities that comprise a descriptive and analytical investigation within the area of induction emphasize the diversity of the research agenda and research investigative strategies that might be deployed.

### Summary

The implications of this study were outlined in this chapter. Evidence of the value and learning that was obtained from this process was summarised in a discussion of the academic, governance and descriptive/analytical implications of the study.

The academic implications were discussed in the context of the confluence of teacher education. The theoretical framework of this confluent relationship was based on the structural paradigm of the three act play. The role of induction, the second act, was amplified by the presentation of five induction paradigms: laissez-faire, collegial, formalized mentor-protege, mandatory competency-based and self-directing professional. The governance implications were then discussed focussing upon the interrelationships of the governance and political factors as well as the domain of governance and its role within the organisational framework of induction. All factors of governance were described as important prerequisites for the establishment and the institutionalization of induction.

Finally, the overall descriptive and analytical implications for preparing a more detailed framework were also reviewed. Additional descriptive categories and analytical factors were identified within the academic, governance and organisational components. These categories and factors were offered as examples of how a more detailed investigation could be pursued when describing or analysing induction programmes.

## Chapter 15

## RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

A comparative case study of this latitude naturally introduces as many questions as it may provide answers. However, there are certain recommendations and conclusions that may be drawn from the presentation and analysis of data. Therefore the topics discussed in this chapter include i) the role induction may play in the confluence of teacher education; ii) the methods by which induction may promote self-directed learning; and iii) programme efficacy of induction models. A summative overview of the thesis including suggestions for further research conclude this chapter.

RecommendationsConfluence of Teacher Education: The Role of Induction

The following recommendations and supportive statements identify the various recommendations that reflect how induction may enhance the confluence of teacher education within the academic, governance and organisational components:

Recommendation 1 - Academic Components

Induction may contribute to the confluence of the pedagogical structure of teacher education if the interrelationship of the curricular emphases and structure complement the underlying theme of the curricular organising principle within the induction model.

The integrity of the pedagogical syllabus of an induction model should be reflected by the conceptual interrelationships of the curricular organising principle, emphases and structure. Assuming that is the case then the teacher development



theme, an important organising principle in all induction programmes, would become evident in the pedagogical design of both curricular emphases and structure. For example all four continua in the curricular emphases would accentuate both individualization and teacher initiated processes within the theoretical and experiential locus of learning. The breadth or depth of curriculum would also be decided upon by the individual beginning teacher. However, one component of the syllabus that would be present would be the emphasis on self-directing learning skills and knowledge. Furthermore the programme's structural components, i.e., supervision format, instructional course format, academic requirements, and alternate programme options would all complement the teacher development theme. Unfortunately the interrelationship of these curricular components within a teacher development orientation was only consistently structured in the New Zealand model. Hence this factor leads to another recommendation.

#### Recommendation 2 - Academic Component

Induction may contribute to the confluence of the pedagogical structure of teacher education if the interrelationship of the curricular emphases and structure reflect the teacher development theme as an organising principle.

Given the underlying rationale of all countries' intention to establish induction programmes for the enhancement of continuous professional development among beginning teachers, and given the paucity of examples that illustrate this perspective, then it appears essential that this curricular organising principle be more effectively developed. As described above the integration of all curricular components does need to enhance the teacher development theme if

beginning teachers are to experience curriculum and instructional consistencies within their induction programme. For example if teachers are encouraged to become self-directive, then they should become full participants in the programme design and be encouraged to identify specific activities and coursework as part of their professional development contract. Furthermore if teachers are encouraged to be more self-evaluative, then they should become fully involved in the assessment of their progress during their probationary year.

Continuous professional development must not only be realized through the individual teacher's induction practices but also through an induction plan that should complement the pre-service and in-service pedagogical orientation that equally supports the teacher development theme. Hence recommendation three emanates from this idea.

### Recommendation 3 - Academic Components

Induction may contribute to the confluence of the pedagogical structure of teacher education if the orientation of the curricular organising principle of teacher development is complementary to the same pre-service and in-service curricular organising principles.

The principle of academic freedom for both programmes and faculty is carefully protected within a university or college. Hence the generally independent perspective of a pre-service programme is normally an understood virtue within teacher education. Nevertheless, if confluence is to occur within teacher education, induction programmes must attempt to reflect certain organising principles that are inherent in most if not all pre-service programmes. For example the professional studies and professional practica within pre-service should emphasize the self-directed orientation so that basic

knowledge, skills and experience may incrementally be built within the curriculum emphases and structure of the the induction programme.

The continuation of this teacher development theme would constitute a major programme orientation of the in-service programme. Whether through university course work, school district-based residential programming, staff programme initiatives at the school level, or collegial supervision and teacher-based research at the classroom level, continuous teacher in-service would complement the professional development practices of the induction programme.

#### Recommendation 4 - Governance Factor

Legislative policy on induction must clearly identify that the underlying principle of induction programmes is to foster the confluence of teacher education through continuous professional development.

National or state educational authorities have a critical role to play in the development of legislative policy that provides the conceptual framework for the introduction of induction programmes. If induction policy emphasizes the need to improve teacher performance or overall teaching standards, then programme design and curricular components will reflect this orientation. Alternatively if continuous teacher development is the main perspective, then induction policy must be developed that will enhance this principle throughout all legislative components, i.e., preparation of pre-service professional profiles of all teachers, articulation with certification criteria, self-evaluation procedures, interrelationship with in-service staff development policy. In particular the legislative policies applicable to assessment and certifica-



tion are most important, hence another recommendation is suggested.

#### Recommendation 5 - Governance Factor

Assessment criteria and certification procedures within induction programmes must incorporate the perspectives of self-direction and self-evaluation so that the curricular organising principle of continuous professional development has the potential of interfacing with similar assessment criteria and certification procedures within both pre-service and in-service programmes.

#### Recommendation 6 - Organisational Components

Confluence requires an organisational vehicle that will incorporate the collegial interaction of all stakeholders in teacher education. Hence the regional and local induction committees should be comprised of representatives from all teacher education agencies, organisations and associations who have a vested interest in the induction process. Particular representation should come from individuals who assume a major role in the programme design of pre-service and in-service programmes.

The governance and organisational importance of the local induction committee has been evidenced in the research data of all induction programmes. Policy development, programme implementation and programme evaluation are three examples of organisational activities that may come under the jurisdiction of the committee. However, this committee also forms an invaluable communication linkage with all participating agencies. Formalized discussions as well as informal conversation will enhance the information and clarification process regarding the induction programme. However, this same committee activity could also transact important discussions on the articulation of pre-service and in-service with induction. Ownership of the three stages of teacher education by all stakeholders may result.

### Recommendation 7 - Organisational Components

In-service training for teachers and supervisory personnel involved in pre-service, induction or staff development programmes should be organised so that particular themes, i.e., self-directed learning, differentiated supervision models, interpersonal communication may be more comprehensively organised and promoted.

Teachers and supervisory personnel working within an in-service programme should be afforded the opportunity to work with colleagues who are undertaking similar responsibilities in both pre-service and staff development programmes. Not only would supervisory personnel be able to exchange ideas and perceptions on the various differences and similarities while working with pre-service students, beginning teachers or experienced teachers, but also the cost efficiency and organisational enhancement of operating concurrent in-service programmes would be most constructive. Again, greater ownership and understanding of the three stages of teacher education by all teachers would be enhanced.

### Recommendation 8 - Organisational Components

A programme of research and evaluation should be developed within induction so that common issues of interest or critical concerns of investigation applicable to continuous professional development in all three stages of teacher education may be documented and a data base of information acquired.

Themes of confluence such as pedagogical content and evaluative criteria, programme sequencing, socialization factors, policy regulations, cost effectiveness, and certification procedures could all be parameters of induction research that would interconnect with the other two stages of teacher education. The number of potential variables is endless, however the collective efforts of teacher educators to pursue this research agenda would further a greater under-



standing of the potential linkages of all three stages and also promote the value of encouraging more collaborative programme planning.

### Self-Directed Learning: The Role of Induction

As outlined in the previous set of recommendations on confluence induction programmes should establish a well designed programme of self-directed learning activities if continuous professional development is to assume more priority within teacher education. The next set of recommendations will propose how this may be achieved.

#### Recommendation 9 - Academic Components

Specific programme goals and objectives within the curriculum design of an induction programme should emphasize the academic perspective of the self-directed learner.

#### Recommendation 10 - Academic Components

Instructional strategies and curriculum activities that encompass self-evaluation, critical reflection and self-directed learning should be incorporated into all induction practices.

#### Recommendation 11 - Governance Component

The beginning teacher's self-assessment of their instructional activities and overall professional progress should be recognized as a formal expectation of their formative and summative evaluation during their induction year.

#### Recommendation 12 - Organisational Component

In instructional resources provided beginning teachers and mentors, the agenda of in-service sessions for mentors and supervisory personnel, and the supervisory strategies used in classroom observations should all reflect a self-directed development theme that enables the beginning teacher to work independently on professional growth concerns.



All of these four recommendations have been discussed in the previous chapter. However, it is important to emphasize that the adoption of such recommendations is a conceptual decision not simply an organisational decision. Hence this orientation must be understood and supported by the policy makers at the state, district and school level. Induction programmes that foster this perspective will prepare teachers to design, implement and self-evaluate not only their own ongoing professional development but also promote this conceptual orientation within their own classes and in the development of curriculum for their own schools.

#### Programme Efficacy of Induction Models

The comparative study of various induction models has identified important criteria that must be present if the efficacy of induction programmes is to be realized. The first twelve recommendations are examples of important criteria that should be present especially if confluence and continuous professional development are to be manifested within the establishment of an induction programme. The following recommendation identifies ten criteria that comprise the efficacy of induction and complement the other recommendations.

#### Recommendation 13 - Programme Efficacy

Achievement of programme efficacy within induction will be achieved if the following criteria comprise each model:

1. Induction programmes must receive specific funding from national state or district levels if programme criteria (2-5) listed below are to be realized effectively.
2. Release time must be provided for both the beginning teacher and the mentor to pursue their individual induction tasks.

3. Opportunities for both beginning teacher and mentor to participate in in-service sessions, preferably together, must be established.
4. A programme evaluation and research agenda should be incorporated into the initiation, implementation and institutionalization phases of induction.
5. An appropriate number of support personnel, i.e., mentor, principal, in-service consultants and local induction coordinators should be incorporated into the organisational framework of the induction programme. Apart from the one-to-one support of the mentor and principal the ratio of other support personnel to beginning teachers should reflect the number of beginning teachers within a school district, i.e., one consultant for every 15 beginning teachers (one-half day supervisory visit, seminar and workshop for every beginning teacher every two weeks).
6. Professional, instructional, curricular and continuous learning skills and knowledge should encompass all academic components of induction programmes so as to remediate, enrich or initiate a new learning with the beginning teacher.
7. Theoretical programming within course work, seminars or tutorials should be introduced wherever appropriate so as to integrate theory and practice in this essentially experiential component of teacher education.
8. Differentiated supervision models should be incorporated into the supervisory repertoire of mentors. Application of different models at appropriate times will enhance both formative, summative and self-evaluative supervision.
9. An operational set of school district policies and regulations should be developed by the individual local induction committees. Clarity on role and responsibilities of supervisory personnel and beginning teachers as well as academic governance and organisational guidelines would be established.
10. The professional status of the beginning teacher must be honoured and enriched by their involvement in the induction programme. Any induction practice that becomes delimiting or demeans the beginning teacher should be eliminated.



### Conclusions

One basic outcome of this study is that the presentation of research data on various induction models has contributed to a better understanding of the conceptual and programmatic parameters of induction programmes within teacher education. However, this study is more than an interorganisational exchange of programme information. For example, one important finding of this research indicates that induction programmes may effectively contribute to the confluence of teacher education if the academic parameters of induction incorporate an integration of the curricular organising principle, curricular emphases and curricular structure that reflect continuous professional development. Furthermore, confluence and the efficacy of the induction programme also will be enhanced if the governance factors of funding, legislative policy and certification guidelines support the organisational components that are required throughout the initiation, implementation and institutionalization stages of induction programming. However, in all induction models in Britain, Australia, New Zealand, the U.S. and Canada no one programme fully actualized the potential that induction might contribute to the improvement of teachers' professional development. Nevertheless, this comparative study has provided evidence that each country, regardless of its unique educational, social, economic and political circumstances, has contributed important conceptual and programmatic innovations to the establishment of induction as an integral component of teacher education.

The preparation of two conceptual frameworks has been another important dimension of this study. First, the analytical framework that has been deployed to compare the various



academic, governance and organisational components may be used as another analytical tool when researchers wish to investigate induction or the confluence of teacher education. Second, the development of the five conceptual paradigms may encourage teacher educators to review the philosophical and programmatic implications of various induction models prior to investing time, resources, and finances to the establishment of an induction programme. Each conceptual paradigm not only profiles five scenarios that beginning teachers may experience upon entering their induction year but also programmatic implications for adopting one paradigm over another are set forth for critical examination.

Without question, the research agenda for applying these descriptive and analytical frameworks upon the study of induction programmes is limitless. However, based on this study three research priorities could be considered. First, to what extent should the curriculum of an induction programme be reflective of the self-perceived needs of the beginning teacher as compared to the programme priorities and conceptual orientations of the teacher education institutions? A definitive answer will not be easily attained nor an absolute answer pedagogically valid. However, investigations of this issue would illuminate the rationale and philosophical implications of selecting a preferred induction model. Second, what academic, governance and organisational components should be prevalent in a pre-service programme that would enhance the confluence of the first stage of teacher education with the other two stages? Given the importance as well as the latitude of beliefs, values, knowledge and skills the beginning teacher

may enter within their induction year it is valuable to consider how pre-service programmes may enhance the transitional linkage with induction in preparing teachers for continuous professional development. Third, what governance and organisational factors should be addressed to enhance the confluence of teacher education and continuous professional development when beginning teachers do not receive a full-time teaching assignment either before or following their induction year? Given the additional stress and uncertainty placed upon beginning teachers as well as the major disruption that unemployment from teaching has upon the ongoing professional development of beginning teachers, innovative and creative programme options should be investigated and identified.

Induction programmes do require a collaborative effort from all stakeholders in teacher education if this component of teacher education is to contribute to the reform in teacher education. The enhancement of the professional preparation of the beginning teacher directly impacts upon the accountability of the teacher educational agencies to contribute to the overall improvement of the educational system. School improvement is a complex institutional, academic and professional enterprise. The quality of schooling, whether it be the application of educational technology, the introduction of a self-directed learning orientation or the adoption of a curriculum that encompasses a celebration of the multicultural dimensions of our school population, all require well educated teachers.

Hence the academic, instructional, developmental and professional breadth of teacher education programmes must accept that teacher preparation is not a single institution's or agency's responsibility to undertake this challenge alone.

Furthermore, the mandate to equip all of the knowledge, skills and understanding required by teachers to improve the quality of schooling cannot be achieved in an induction programme without the confluent academic, governance and organisational interrelationships with pre-service and in-service programmes. More importantly, this professional preparation of teachers should be directly influenced by their experiential problems both theoretical and practical in the classroom or school setting. Induction can attend to this issue by providing beginning teachers with the opportunity to conceptualize their experience and critically reflect upon their actions while they are entering the most impressionable and professionally demanding phase of their career.

Teacher education programmes therefore have the opportunity to initiate innovation and reform within the educational system. However, to accomplish this task the new inductees into the profession must receive the best of induction practices, continuous instructional and curricular support from all colleagues and the opportunity to work in a professional environment that enhances and honours their self-directed learning potential. Quality induction programmes can then make a difference.

### Summary

This chapter provided a summative overview of the thesis including both a series of recommendations as well as an identification of further research topics that emanate from this research. Recommendations addressed the role induction may play in the confluence of teacher education, the methods by which induction may promote self-directed learning and the



programme efficacy of induction models.

The importance of the study was encapsilated and the potential application of the two analytical models upon investigative research and programme development of induction was described. The chapter concluded by a retrospective statement of the overall value, implications and orientation that induction and teacher education must exemplify if the improvement of teacher preparation, and in turn school improvement, are to be realized.

One final quote to conclude the thesis that reflects the underlying theme of this study:

"There is a need to plan and implement professional development programmes that view the adult learner as one who wants to learn as well as to build on the experiences of the learner remembering that adult learning patterns and needs change throughout their careers."

Burke, Christensen and Fessler (184, p. 22)

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

Governance Recommendations of the National  
Evaluation Report on Induction - Britain  
(Bolam, Baker, and McMahon, 1979)

In all Schools

1. There should be:
  - a) A written, general policy on
    - (i) induction
    - (ii) assessment of probationers.
  - b) A designated member of staff, who may be termed a teacher tutor, with overall responsibilities for probationers.
2. A probationer's timetable should be as follows:
  - a) 75% teaching load (including any normal release time for marking/preparation).
  - b) 5% extra marking/preparation time.
  - c) 20% time for school and centre-based induction.
  - d) Regular, systematic observation of the probationer's teaching by a 'tutor'/experienced colleague.
  - i) The opportunity for the probationer to see and sign the L.E.A. probationary year assessment for.
4. The 'teacher tutor' should be:
  - b) Paid at an appropriate point on the local L.E.A. scale (and not on an ad hoc, per capita basis).
  - e) Consulted about the formal assessment of probationers.

All Professional Centres Should

Emphasize their role in promoting the wider professional aims of induction.

In all L.E.A.s

1. There should be:
  - a) A written, general policy on
    - (i) induction,
    - (ii) assessment of probationers.
  - b) Appropriate release time and replacement arrangements for probationers (75%) and tutors.
  - c) Clearly delineated induction roles for the advisory team.
  - e) A representative Advisory Committee for INSET, including induction.
  - g) A designated adviser to co-ordinate the financial and organisational aspects.
  - i) Effective local procedures to evaluate the induction programme.
  - k) Effective procedures to ensure parity of standards and provision in school-based schemes.
  - l) An L.E.A. induction handbook for probationers.
  - m) The training of teacher tutors should be regarded as essential



## APPENDIX B

Sample Induction Programme  
New Zealand  
Department of Education 1979

The following are examples only of what might be included in an induction programme:

1. School and Community  
 Insight into community to which school belongs.  
 School's relationships with parents.  
 Knowledge of contributing schools.
2. Organisation of School  
 Responsibilities and duties of teachers - pertinent by-laws and regulations.  
 Organisational patterns - departments, syndicates.  
 Lines of authority.  
 Supportive services available - remedial services.  
 Referral systems.  
 Resources and equipment procedures.  
 Extent of initiatives and freedoms available within the organisation.
3. Classroom Society  
 Provision for individual and group differences.  
 Sensitivity and skills in human relationships.  
 Management techniques - class routines, grouping.  
 Motivation.  
 Discipline.  
 Assessment of classroom climate.
4. Content  
 School schemes.  
 Preparation and planning requirements and skills for translating curricula to meet individual needs.  
 Teaching strategies and methods.  
 Pupil activities/learning experiences - means of involving pupils in their own learning and growth.  
 Resources - availability - selection - inside and outside school.
5. Evaluation  
 School system and its requirements - rating, scaling, recording.  
 Existing data on own pupils.  
 Range of areas to be evaluated (including personal relationships).  
 Range of appropriate measures.  
 Concrete examples of standard expected.
6. Self-Analysis and Development  
 Criteria of achievement in all above facets.  
 Means and processes of professional growth - continuing teacher education, subject associations.  
 Advice and support available.

## APPENDIX C

Florida's Beginning Teacher Programme  
Knowledge-Based Domains

## Domain 1. Planning . . .

refers to that domain of teaching in which teachers formulate a course of action for carrying out instruction over a school year, a semester, a week or several weeks, a day, or a lesson. Conceptual categories are: i) content coverage, ii) utilization of instructional materials, iii) activity structure, iv) goal focussing, v) diagnosis.

## Domain 2. Management of Student Conduct . . .

refers to three types of teacher performance: (a) performance that reduces the probability of student disruption, (b) that stops disruptive conduct once it occurs, and (c) that deals with serious misconduct rooted in personality aberrations. Conceptual categories are: i) rule explication and monitoring, ii) teacher whittiness, iii) overlapping, iv) quality of desist, v) task attraction and challenge, vi) group alerting, vii) movement smotherness, viii) movement slow-down, ix) effective praise.

## Domain 3. Instructional Organisation and Development . . .

consists of three components: (a) efficient use of time, (b) skillful management of major teaching functions, and (c) skillful conduct of classroom interaction. Conceptual categories are: i) efficient use of time, ii) review of subject matter, iii) lesson development, iv) teacher treatment of student talk, v) teacher academic feedback, vi) management of seatwork/homework.

## Domain 4. Presentation of Subject Matter . . .

entails two types of performances: (a) interaction with students and (b) manipulation of subject matter. Conceptual categories are: i) presentation of conceptual knowledge, ii) presentation of explanatory knowledge, iii) presentation of content levels, iv) management of discourse, v) management of emphasis.

## Domain 5. Communication: Verbal and Non-Verbal

Verbal expression communicates cognitive content, non-verbal expressions communicate feelings and emotions. Conceptual categories are: i) standard English discourse, ii) mathematical discourse, iii) body language, iv) voice and speech, vi) primitive behaviour.

## Domain 6. Evaluation

Evaluation data, its acquisition, analysis and reporting are integral to the instructional process. For the teacher it becomes the method by which the pupil is assisted to understand his abilities, achievement and learning difficulties. Conceptual categories are: i) reporting evaluation to instructional objectives, ii) preparation for testing, iii) test administration, iv) frequency of testing, v) formative feedback, vi) marking and grading.



## APPENDIX D

F.B.T.P. Support Staff Responsibilities

1. Attends in-service sessions offered by F.B.T.P. district personnel. Content would include:
  - a) Programme orientation
  - b) Knowledge of the 24 generic competencies
    - what they are
    - how to recognize in terms of teacher behaviour
    - how to demonstrate
    - how to communicate them in practical language
  - c) Observation skills
  - d) Consultation skills
  - e) Planning for instruction
  - f) Classroom management
  - g) Student use of time
  - h) Delivery of instruction (presentation of content matter)
  - i) Evaluation of student progress
  - j) How to recognize and deal with personal needs and concerns of beginning teachers
  - k) Time management
  - l) How to deal with change effectively
2. Develops professional development plan in conjunction with beginning teachers
3. Conducts formative observation of each beginning teacher
4. Conducts consultation with each beginning teacher following observation
5. Assists in maintaining teacher portfolio
6. Assists in facilitating staff development for beginning teachers
7. Assists in updating beginning teacher portfolio one week prior to final summative observation



## APPENDIX E

Institutionalization Timeline of F.B.T.P  
(Palm Beach County)

- |     |  |                                 |
|-----|--|---------------------------------|
| 1.  | Development of local F.B.T.P. by county beginning teacher committee  | March                           |
| 2.  | Approval by local county board   | April                           |
| 3.  | Submit induction plan to Department of Education   | April                           |
| 4.  | Orientation for principals and other administrators  | April-May                       |
| 5.  | Orientation for training cadre   | April-May                       |
| 6.  | Orientation for support staff members  | May-June                        |
| 7.  | Department of Education approval of induction plan for each county   | June                            |
| 8.  | In-depth training for support staff  | July-August                     |
| 9.  | Beginning teachers orientation   | August                          |
| 10. | Development of beginning teacher professional development plan and initiation of portfolio   | August                          |
| 11. | Begin formative observations   | September                       |
| 12. | Update training for support staff and principals   | September                       |
| 13. | Summative evaluation training for principals/assistant principals  | September                       |
| 14. | First summative evaluation of beginning teachers   | Sept.-Nov.                      |
| 15. | Seminars for beginning teachers  | Sept.-Dec.                      |
| 16. | Conclude formative observations  | January-June<br>(monthly basis) |
| 17. | Final summative evaluations concluded by this date   | April-May                       |
| 18. | Recommendations on verifications of skills of beginning teacher by support staff to project manager (portfolios forwarded from school) | April-May                       |
| 19. | Superintendent transmits names of successful beginning teachers to Department of Education   | June                            |

## APPENDIX F

Teacher Induction Project RecommendationsManitoba Department of Education 1978

1. All school systems in cooperation with the MTS local should provide extensive orientation and ongoing support programs for beginning teachers, at least throughout the first year, based on the findings of this report and other available studies.
2. The Department of Education identify consultants charged with the responsibility to assist school administrators, especially in rural and remote areas, in establishing support programs for beginning teachers. Special funds should be made available to systems that need and accept these services.
3. In view of the general and strong criticism, the campus based teacher education program should be thoroughly modified or replaced by another program so as to provide for:
  - 1) More adequate practical experience;
  - 2) More sharing of responsibility between the university and the participating schools;
  - 3) The assurance of an effective working relationship between the student teacher and the supervising teacher; and
  - 4) Relevance in all theory courses to current programs and classroom situations.
4. The two year probationary period prior to permanent certification should become a recognized part of the professional preparation of teachers with regular systematic provision for professional growth. The responsibility for this phase of teacher preparation should be shared by the universities and the local school system and the Department of Education.
5. More provision should be made for student teachers to practice in rural and remote schools.

## APPENDIX G

Elements and Issues of InternshipB.C. Proposal 1982Elements of Internship

1. Prior Academic Preparation
2. Prior Professional Preparation (Includes Practica)
3. Prolonged Period of Increasing Professional Responsibility in Authentic Setting
4. Recognised Legal Status
5. Financial Compensation
6. Existence of Teacher-Mentor (Teacher/Supervision)
7. University/School Partnership
8. Full Range and Sequence of Professional Experience
9. Assessment of Professional Competence
10. Continuing Education of Teachers
11. Selection of Candidates Prior to Internship

Issues of Internship

1. Legal Status
2. Funding
3. University/School Involvement
4. Prior Practicum Experience
5. Administration
6. Quality of Experience
7. Placements
8. Teacher-Mentor
9. Competencies
10. Assessment
11. Flexibility of Programmes
12. Acceptance by Constituents
13. Pre or Post Certificate



# APPENDIX H

## Alberta's Initiation to Teaching Project Stakeholder Roles

Stakeholder Roles — The Initiation to Teaching Project	D. Faculties of Education	H. Local School Board	J. Steering Committee
<p><b>A. Alberta Education</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provision of a provincial grant to the project.</li> <li>• Implementation, co-ordination and administration of the provincial program.</li> <li>• Establishment of the project steering committee.</li> <li>• Participation on the project steering committee.</li> <li>• Preparation of an information package.</li> <li>• Advertising of the project to school jurisdictions, private schools, private ECS operators and prospective interns.</li> <li>• Participation in invitation zone meetings on the project.</li> <li>• Review and approval of applications.</li> <li>• Advice to the boards of school jurisdictions, private schools and private ECS operators.</li> <li>• Development of an evaluation design for the project.</li> <li>• Monitoring, evaluation and adjustment of the project as required.</li> </ul> <p><b>B. Advanced Education</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation on the project steering committee.</li> <li>• Provision of information to post-secondary institutions.</li> </ul> <p><b>C. Alberta Manpower</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation on the project steering committee.</li> <li>• Provision of grants to a maximum of \$7,000 for wages for intern candidates payable to school boards.</li> <li>• Reviewing, approving, monitoring and auditing grant applications for Manpower funds.</li> <li>• Provision of a grant of up to 75% of instructional costs to a maximum of \$1,000 per intern.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation on the steering committee including student representation.</li> <li>• Information sessions for prospective interns.</li> <li>• Advice to school boards in planning the project as requested</li> <li>• In-service to co-operating staff in the project.</li> <li>• Expert advice in the design and implementation of the evaluation of the project.</li> <li>• Liaison between the participating schools, school jurisdictions or private ECS operators and the faculties of Education.</li> </ul> <p><b>E. Alberta School Trustees' Association</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation on the steering committee.</li> <li>• Organization of information meetings in the zones for participating school boards, superintendents, private school heads and private ECS operators.</li> <li>• Provision of information on project progress to participating boards on an ongoing basis.</li> </ul> <p><b>F. Conference of Alberta School Superintendents</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation on the steering committee.</li> <li>• Participation in zone information meetings with the ASTA.</li> <li>• Provision of information on project progress on an ongoing basis to members of CASS.</li> <li>• Assist in the development and delivery of in-service to participating professional staff at the local level.</li> </ul> <p><b>G. Alberta Teachers' Association</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation on the steering committee.</li> <li>• Participation in in-service and planning activities at the local level.</li> <li>• Communication of the details of the project and its progress to their members.</li> <li>• Participate in zone information meetings with the ASTA.</li> <li>• Extend to interns active membership at a reduced fee (1% of salary).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establishment of plans with respect to the employment of interns.</li> <li>• Development of the project plan and implementation process.</li> <li>• Selection of interns and co-operating teachers.</li> <li>• Provision of in-service for co-operating teachers and interns.</li> <li>• Establishment of an ongoing monitoring and evaluation process.</li> </ul> <p><b>I. Private School Boards and Private ECS Operators</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Same as for school boards.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Monitoring and reporting on the progress of implementation.</li> <li>• Consultation with participants in the design and conduct of the evaluation of the project.</li> <li>• Liaison with the participating school jurisdictions, private schools and private ECS operators.</li> <li>• Assessment of the internal and external impact of the program and the implications for the stakeholder groups in teacher education programs.</li> <li>• Design and implementation of a follow-up of interns.</li> <li>• Ongoing monitoring and evaluation of the project.</li> <li>• Provisions of recommendations regarding adjustments as required after the first year of operation of the project.</li> <li>• Preparation of a report on the summary evaluation of the project and recommendations.</li> </ul>

(Alberta Education, 1985a)

## APPENDIX I

Fullan's Educational Change Adoption Factors

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1. Existence and quality of innovation     | legacy of induction practice and sophistication of new induction program.   |
| 2. Access to information                   | availability of orientation and instructional resource materials for beginning teachers and mentors.  |
| 3. Advocacy from administrators            | advocacy by school and district level administrators support induction through released time, preferred class assignments for beginning teachers and mentors and recognize it as part of staff development program. |
| 4. Teacher pressure/support                | recognition by teaching profession of the inductee status of beginning teacher and endorses assessment procedures.  |
| 5. Consultants and change agents           | prevalence of formative developmental supervision practices with beginning teachers and mentors as in other staff development programs.   |
| 6. Community pressure/support              | approval by parents organizations of professional development activities of beginning teachers and mentors.   |
| 7. Availability of federal or other funds  | availability of district, state, or national funds for salaries of induction program personnel pro-d costs, materials.  |
| 8. New legislation or policy               | introduction of federal and/or state certification regulations and assessment criteria for induction program so as to support school based practices.   |
| 9. Problem solving incentives for adoption | evidence of collaborative planning and implementing activities for induction consortium of teacher education institutions.  |
| 10. Bureaucratic incentives for adoption   | evidence of state and district financial support for innovative school and district based induction program initiatives for beginning teachers and mentors pro-d within the staff development mandate.              |